# The Amazing Benjamin Franklin

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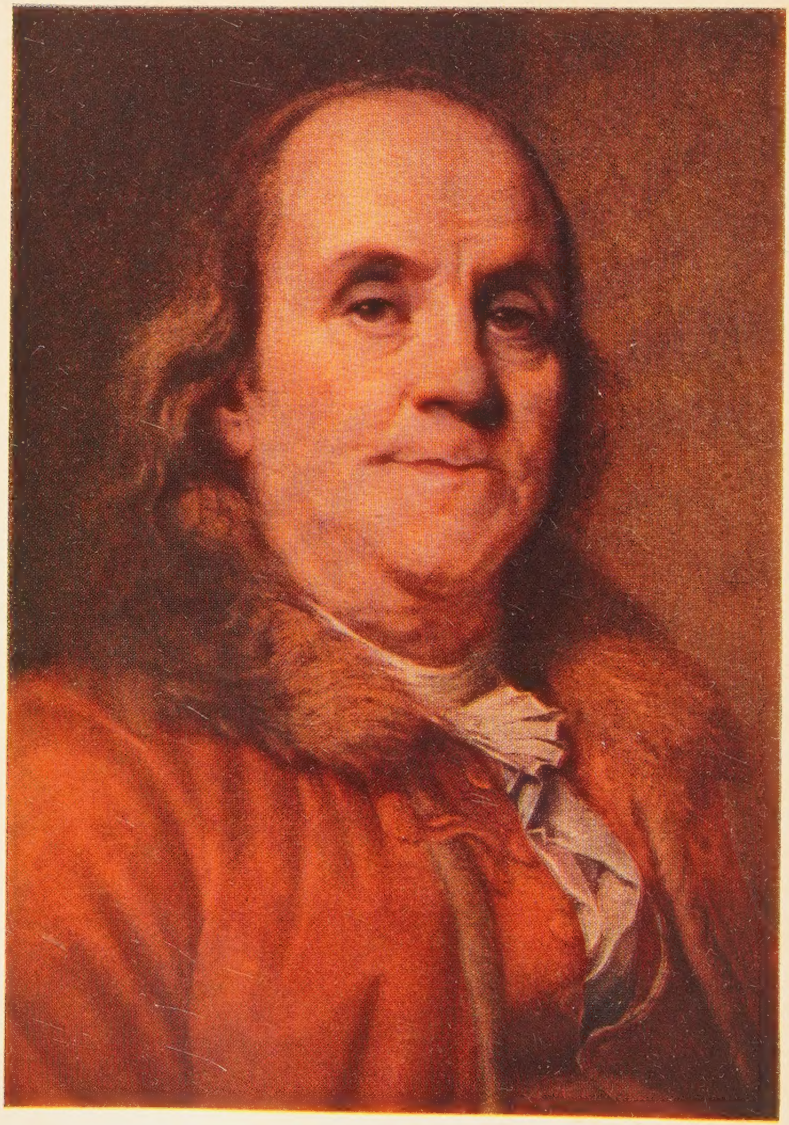
With Xmas greetings from
"R.D.", one of the authors
of this book, to
"S. H."

Dec. 25, 1929



Benj. Franklin

*From the Painting by Duplessis in the Boston Public Library*

# THE AMAZING Benjamin Franklin

*Compiled and Edited by* J. Henry Smythe, Jr.

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*PHILADELPHIA CHAPTER*
Sons of the American Revolution

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DEDICATED

TO

THE MEMORY OF

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN

"A SERVANT, CITIZEN AND PATRIOT

SUCH AS NO OTHER COUNTRY EVER HAD

IN THE HISTORY OF MAN"

PUBLISHED UNDER THE AUSPICES OF

*PHILADELPHIA CHAPTER*

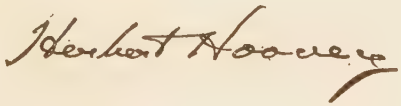
Sons of the American Revolution

# Foreword

*Special Message Sent by President Hoover for "The Amazing Benjamin Franklin"*

THE WHITE HOUSE
WASHINGTON

Benjamin Franklin's services to his country were not alone in the great foundations of the Republic, but in his original mind and his homely wisdom which have stimulated and fertilized the thought of every succeeding generation in our country.



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# Preface

The greatest champions of American Independence were George Washington and Benjamin Franklin. Washington was selected by the Continental Congress as head of the army and Franklin was likewise chosen to present to the world at large America's reasons for independence.

This Boston-born Philadelphian was the central figure of that period in American history extending from the year 1736 to the time of his death.

This book is here presented by the Sons of the American Revolution as a patriotic tribute to the memory of Benjamin Franklin and as a record of his genius and achievements.

Of him, Ex-President Coolidge said: "No American career more deserves the gratitude and reverence of the nation than does that of Franklin. He was one of that marvelous group of Revolutionary leaders, each of whom seemed in his particular department to be a supreme genius. His life's story is replete with illumination for the problems of our time."

The collecting of these articles has been an ambitious undertaking. That prominent persons have combined in recording their personal regard of Franklin, and thus honor him, is in itself a remarkable tribute.

Our Chapter of the Sons of the American Revolution sincerely believes that these articles are well worth the study of all—including school children—who wish to learn what Franklin has meant to America and to the progress of the entire civilized world.

An organization, such as the Sons of the American Revolution, whose forefathers were privileged to come in close contact with Benjamin Franklin, appreciates the work and labor of the men and women who have taken time to prepare this material. It also desires to thank the editor, compatriot J. Henry Smythe, Jr., founder of "Franklin Day," for his high vision and tireless energy in securing these contributions and arranging for their publication.

Special thanks are due to President Hoover for his Foreword to this book. Himself a member of the Pennsylvania Society, Sons of the American Revolution, he took pains to send this brief message, regretting that the pressure upon his time did not permit a longer contribution. Compatriot Hoover's sentiments regarding the S. A. R. are clearly expressed in an earlier letter addressed to the President General of the National Society: "Please extend to the National Congress of the Sons of the American Revolution my best wishes for a meeting fruitful of fresh inspiration. The preservation of the best traditions of history is one of the strongest bonds of our national unity, and your Society has thus a most useful field of service." Several other occupants of the White House have likewise been members of the S. A. R., including Presidents Roosevelt, Harding and Coolidge.

National Congresses of both the Daughters of the American Revolution and the Sons of the American Revolution have recommended celebration of Franklin's Birthday, January 17th, especially in the schools, "though no public holiday is desirable." It is hardly possible to think of a better subject for patriotic study

than Benjamin Franklin. His whole life was that of an American interested in America. His whole desire was that America should take her rightful place among the nations of the world. We cannot fail to realize that Benjamin Franklin was the one man of the Revolutionary period who gave the first great impulse which raised America to the position where she is today.

LAWRENCE C. HICKMAN

*President, Philadelphia Chapter,*
*Sons of the American Revolution*

# "The Greatest Diplomat of All Time"

By Charles E. Hughes
*Ex-Secretary of State*

Benjamin Franklin was the first of American diplomats and in his simplicity, his candor, his intellectual power, ardent patriotism and in the desire which dominated his every action to be of practical service to humanity, he has for all time set the standards for American diplomacy. George Bancroft said that he was "the greatest diplomat of his century," and it may be added that he is the greatest of all the diplomatic representatives of this country and has no superior among those of any time of other nations. This country was conspicuously fortunate in the men who defined its earliest policies and there is no one among those entitled to higher honor than Franklin.

# Franklin, the Diplomatist

## *From the* Department of State

The Continental Congress had been badly served by its representatives abroad, but its methods had been such as to invite failure. Jealous of its powers, it had declined to entrust the conduct of foreign relations to any one man, so a committee was appointed, fluctuating in numbers and in constitution, without permanent Chairman or Secretary, and with no authority to initiate a policy of its own. Important matters had to be openly debated and decided by the vote of the whole House; accordingly, when Congress was not in session, the decision had to wait. In Europe it appointed a perfect swarm of envoys and agents, and invested them with extensive powers. It fixed the salaries of these envoys but left them to be paid by the novel expedient of borrowing money from the courts to which they were accredited. It extemporized a diplomatic service by the easy expedient of nominating any American Whig who happened to be in Europe when the Revolution broke out and who had a mind for public employment. Few of these ready-made diplomats possessed any aptitude for their new vocation; their antecedents had often been dubious; and their subsequent history, in some cases, was deplorable. Always without invitation, and for the most part in face of strenuous remonstrances, they were despatched to the capital of every leading European country, or at all events as far across the frontier as they were allowed to penetrate.

In this condition, which had become an emergency, the

eyes of Congress turned to one person, who alone it was felt could save the situation. On September 27, 1776, it unanimously, and on the first ballot, elected him Commissioner to France. It was a man of 70, tortured by stone and gout, who prepared to sail, after first placing in the hands of Congress, then in dire necessity for want of money, all his available funds in the full knowledge that if the national cause was lost, his loan was lost with it. But in his mind there was no thought of failing, for the old man who embarked to become the voice of the United States in Europe was Benjamin Franklin.

Upon his arrival he found that Louis XVI had no special love for Americans or for rebels, but revenge on England for the awful disasters of 1758-9 and the calamitous peace of 1763 was dear to the French heart, and the will of the French ministry to attain it was aided by the romantic sympathy for America which was felt in polite society at a time when the feelings of polite society had vast influence upon the decisions of government. Versailles was France and fashion controlled Versailles.

It was the task of the new Commissioner, the very incarnation of sanity and good sense, to bring France . . . or rather to bring French society . . . to see the advantage of espousing the cause of the United States. His powers were equal to the task.

Together with a sagacity which has rarely been equalled, a fairness of judgment and equanimity of temper which neither flattery nor animosity could swerve, a perception of the conditions of the time which enabled him best to utilize them to the advantage of his country, he brought to the American Revolution a diplo-

matic and administrative experience far greater than any man in the American Colonies. There were but few points of political or economic action as to which his judgment was not sound; there was no question with regard to which he was influenced, at least in his later years, by ambition, or at any time in his life, by fear or by greed. When he sailed for France in 1776, repose, in the nature of things, would have been his principal desire, and, as essential to that repose, peace in the political world. Of his attachment to England there can be no question. From England he had received many honors and kindnesses. His son, to whom he was much attached, was a strong loyalist and royal governor of New Jersey. But in Franklin's judgment it was essential to freedom and to ultimate peace that the English yoke should be cast off, and, though he abhorred war, he yet maintained that war should be waged until independence was secured. He devoted, with perfect courage, the remainder of his life to that work. He ran the risk of capture at sea. He repelled every inducement held out to him from England to give up France and to enter into relations with England which would give the United States independence in everything but name. He seems never even to have contemplated these inducements, for he persevered in his course until a peace was agreed on which gave his country more than any dispassionate observer would have held it at the time possible to obtain.

As a diplomatist, considering the fitness of his official papers to the purposes for which they were written, it may be questioned whether, taking them as a body, there are any diplomatic documents equal to them. They are

terse, simple, full of tact, always persuasive, always just in tone, always presenting the soundest reasons for what he asks, or the right explanations for what is to be defended. And they abound in those epigrammatical expressions as remarkable for wisdom as for wit, the authorship of which, taking all his publications together, have made Franklin of all men the one to whom proverbial philosophy in its best sense owes most.

Of all men in American public life, Franklin was the most familiar, when he came to France as envoy, with the political conditions with which he had to deal. As Postmaster General, he had traversed every inhabited part of the country. He had been prominent in Pennsylvania politics for forty years, during which period he had been concerned with the various projects which were formed for alliances between the Colonies. He had been actively engaged in the raising and forwarding of men and supplies for the British campaigns against France in the New World, and to his sagacity and patriotism was largely due the success of those campaigns. Nor were his efforts confined to America. He had been simultaneously agent for Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, New Jersey and Georgia in England for a series of years. Perhaps there was no living man so familiar with and observant of English politics as was Franklin when he left England finally in 1775. To France also his keen powers of observation and analysis were turned first as an antagonist during the war in which the Colonies joined with England against her, later when he visited Paris in 1767 as an honored guest, and then as an expectant ally when he went again in 1776.

Franklin's work in Paris can not be properly estimated without considering the administrative problems with which he was confronted. Europe was the center of action; it was in Europe that funds for carrying on the war were to be raised; it was in Europe that supplies for the armies of the revolted Colonies were mainly to be obtained; it was in Europe that, in view of the impossibility of prompt communication with Congress, the diplomacy of the Revolution was to be directed; it was in the ports of France, of Spain, of Holland, that American privateers were fitted out, and to them that they brought back their prizes; it was in Europe that all admiralty questions relative to the Colonies were to be determined; it was in Europe also that the naval operations of their privateers were to be planned. It was by Franklin alone that these various functions were exercised. On his arrival in Europe until at least the treaty of peace, he conducted almost exclusively the financial operations of the Colonies in Europe. It was through him alone that loans were obtained and to his hands alone were their proceeds paid.

The exhaustion of the home resources of Congress, which became complete in 1781, made it necessary to seek abroad for aid, and it soon became plain that from France alone could substantial aid be expected. No non-belligerent power would voluntarily forfeit the great commercial advantages of neutrality by advancing funds to the Continental Congress when such supplies would at once be followed by a declaration of war by Great Britain. Hence it was on Franklin alone, as the sole American minister with whom France would treat, that Con-

gress was obliged to rely for payment of the innumerable bills it drew on Europe; and though they were directed sometimes to Jay, sometimes to Adams, sometimes to Laurens, yet on Franklin and through him on France, was the call to be ultimately made. Franklin, therefore, was in reality in 1781 and 1782 European fiscal agent of the Congress, which was obliged to rely on him almost exclusively for funds.

In addition to these diplomatic and financial functions, which put him almost in a rôle corresponding to that of a Secretary of State and a Secretary of the Treasury, combined, he had to exercise the functions of a Secretary of War in the selection and forwarding of military supplies, of a Secretary of the Navy in supervising the fitting out and commissioning of privateers numerous enough to scour all European waters, and of a Supreme Admiralty Judge in determining prize questions affecting the privateers, and in adjusting the almost innumerable controversies in which those concerned in privateering operations were engaged. And it was on Franklin alone that fell the enormous labor of keeping the accounts connected with these various departments of administration.

History shows us that in diplomacy national antipathies are removed and favorable treaties concluded more often through conversations which take their beginning in social intercourse than in any other way. And there can be no question that Franklin accomplished more by the grace and kindliness of his manner, his freedom from egoism and his wonderful conversational skill of presenting what he wanted to say in the most homely and winning way, than he ever could have, had he confined

himself exclusively to his work desk, or the conference table.

For all his unworldly aspect he was a consummate man of the world and he dined abroad every weekday not because people thought it their duty to invite him but because they could not have too much of his company. French men and women alike praised the ease and skill with which he employed their language—learned years before in Philadelphia—and that is one point on which no true Parisian will condescend to flatter.

Acting in strict obedience to the promptings of a mother-wit, which in great things as in small, was all but infallible, and with a knowledge of human nature diplomatic even to the verge of wiliness, he devoted with success his vast energy, his audacious creativeness, and his dexterity in persuading his fellow creatures to the cause of the Revolution. On February 6, 1778, treaties of alliance and commerce with France were signed by Franklin, Lee and Deane at Paris. On October 28th of the same year the commission was discharged and Franklin appointed sole plenipotentiary at the French court. In 1781 he was appointed head of the commission to make peace with Great Britain and on September 3, 1783, he signed that treaty.

Not until 1785 did Congress grant his request to be allowed to return, and appointed Thomas Jefferson to relieve him. Jefferson, when asked if he replaced Franklin, replied, "No one can replace him, sir; I am only his successor." This may well stand as the verdict of posterity.

BARTLETT'S BRONZE OF FRANKLIN

*This statue at Waterbury, Conn., was unveiled in 1921. En route by Autocar from Baltimore, it was escorted by Boy Scouts to Philadelphia, New York, Boston and other cities. This pilgrimage, arranged by the S. A. R., in part retraced, reversed, Franklin's runaway trip of 1723.*

# France and America

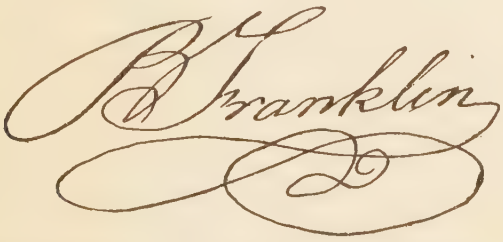
By Alexandre Millerand

*Ex-President of France*

In Benjamin Franklin France admires the private citizen who, with his simplicity of manners and his shrewd, genial kindliness, enjoyed the highest gifts of the mind and the widest learning; she renders homage to the man of science whose far-famed experiments have widened the field of human knowledge.

He was the first American citizen entrusted with an official mission to Paris; at the dawn of the glorious history of the United States he personified the aspirations of a people in its youth, towards liberty and independence. It was he who laid the foundations of that unalterable friendship which unites, as on the first day, two great nations enamoured of Ideal and of Justice.

* "I hope that the alliance between France and my country will be eternal."



* From an unpublished manuscript in the library of American Philosophical Society.—Editor.

# Franklin, the Man of Character

By Sir Esme Howard
*British Ambassador at Washington*

Benjamin Franklin is one of those rare men with regard to whom it seems almost impertinent for an ordinary mortal to write or to speak, whether in praise or blame. In this short message I do not propose to treat of his remarkable achievements as a writer, a man of science, a statesman, a diplomatist. That will be far better done by others. But, having been asked to contribute something to this symposium in his memory, I shall venture with great diffidence to write a few paragraphs on his character as it strikes me.

There is about Benjamin Franklin a peculiar quality of simplicity and kindness of heart which is an essential part of true greatness of character. In addition to this, he had a real sense of humour, demonstrated by his invention and use of the hoax as a political weapon, that places him at once among the ranks of the human, as opposed to the pedantic, great ones of the earth. Benjamin Franklin must have been an essentially lovable character and a most delightful companion. He was without doubt a brilliant talker, or he could not have had so great a success in the Paris Salons of the eighteenth century, which were renowned for their conversation. Yet no social or other success seems for a moment to have turned his head or gone to his brain like wine, for the man who had begun life as a poor printer left the Court of France with just the same simplicity and unpretentious kindliness as he showed before he went there, and these qualities he re-

tained up to the end. His simplicity, moreover, was certainly not affected—it was innate and natural to him. It was never assumed for political purposes. This complete lack of affectation or pretence of any kind is one of his most attractive features, all the more so because he lived in an age of affectation and pretence, from which it is difficult to believe that even a man like Dr. Johnson was altogether free. But, these qualities would never occur to any man's mind when thinking of Benjamin Franklin.

Lastly—one other great quality of Franklin which springs at once to the mind was his love of peace. This was part of his real sympathy with humanity. Ardent political advocate though he was, he was essentially a man of peace. Had his advice been taken when he was Colonial agent in London, it is more than probable that the violent breach with the Mother Country, which he never desired, would never have taken place, and that the inevitable separation when it came would have left no aftermath of bitterness and rancour behind it. How much bad blood and how many future difficulties Franklin would have spared us had his counsels of wisdom, moderation and patience been followed, it is now impossible to say. His sense of fairness, his desire to keep "the middle of the road," are well exemplified in a remark of his, when both the British Government and the Colonists rejected his proposals for a settlement of their quarrel on the ground that these proposals were too favourable to the other party. These objections Franklin records, perhaps not without reason, "make me suspect that it was really the true medium."

We Englishmen must certainly honour the memory of

this man, who, while loving the country from which his forefathers came, always battled for the just rights of his own compatriots, and, having struggled to preserve peace to the utmost of his power, after the die was cast did not hesitate to work as vigorously for the cause of his own country in war as he had previously laboured for the preservation of peace.

Taking him all in all, Benjamin Franklin seems to have possessed all the best qualities of the patriot, the statesman and the diplomat. He had a profound love of his country, with a complete absence of prejudice against or contempt for others, a great desire to maintain peace, but when war came, owing to no fault of his, he was unhesitating in support of his country.

It were well both for Great Britain and the United States if they could produce in every generation leading men of the type of Benjamin Franklin, who in moments of crisis would teach us to be at one and the same time, as human beings, unremitting in our labours in the cause of peace and, as patriots, in the cause of our country.

# The Relations of England with America

## 1740-1783

*The National Association of Book Publishers*

By Major Geo. Haven Putnam

Benjamin Franklin has been called the "Typical American"; but it would be more accurate to say that he was the only American whose personality filled out the requirements of the Franklin type. No other American, and no other man on either side of the Atlantic, possessed anything approaching Franklin's range of knowledge in so many channels, or the standard of his practical wisdom, his experience, his humor, and his common sense.

Under various emergencies and demands Franklin gave evidence of courage of a very high type. The record of Franklin's action in presenting to the British Parliament the just demands of Americans who were claiming equal rights with other English-speaking citizens of the great British Commonwealth, and the picture of Franklin standing before that same Parliament as representative of these transatlantic English-speaking peoples, and accepting with unperturbed countenance the stream of abusive invective that was poured upon him by Wedderburn, give, together, an impression of an Ambassador who was certainly discharging in full measure his obligations to the Dominions he was representing.

With a full measure of prejudice against the Colonials, whom they persisted in regarding not as fellow citizens,

but as subjects of Britain, the more intelligent Englishmen of the day could not but be impressed with the manliness and the dignity that characterized the Ambassador from America, and the fullness and precision of his information.

Franklin's claims to recognition of the rights of English-speaking peoples throughout the world were based on Magna Charta. The great Charter secured, in 1215, certain rights that were essential for free men. The "free men" whom the Barons and Archbishop Langton had in mind in 1215 comprised but a small number of citizens. The circle of free men has gradually extended so as to include the millions of citizens who are now entitled to the exercise of the rights that were secured for English-speaking peoples in 1215.

It was for the rights of the greatest of these English-speaking communities (rights based on the Charter of 1215) that Franklin was contending in 1774. If the English statesmen of the day had been large-minded enough and clear-headed enough to realize that the contentions maintained by Franklin were based not only on the great Charter but on the great law of justice that should control the action of all governments, the American Dominion could have been preserved within the great British Commonwealth.

These statesmen were, however, obtuse and stubborn, and their lack of intelligence was the cause of a struggle that lasted seven years, with an unnecessary expenditure of life and of treasure, and that took away from the British Commonwealth the fairest and most promising of its Dominions.

During the years in which Franklin classed himself as a citizen not only of the Colony of Pennsylvania, but of the British Empire, he was keenly and, as always, intelligently, interested in plans for the wise government of the Empire and for the development of the resources of the home country and of the Colonies and dependencies. He had close personal relations during his long sojourn in London with a number of the members of the government and with other leaders of thought. It is evident from the record of the correspondence and conversations, that patriotic and intelligent Englishmen placed a large value upon the opinion of this wise-minded American.

Among the matters with which he had personal connection was the war with France in 1756-58, and particularly, of course, with the operations in Canada. It was at the close of 1757, or at the beginning of 1758, that Franklin gave counsel in regard to the desirability of shaping an expedition against French rule in Canada. His opinion was considered of importance in the conclusion that was finally reached, and, in 1758, under the able leadership of the brilliant General Wolfe, the expedition was sent out which resulted in the capture of Quebec and, a year later, in the domination of Canada by Great Britain. There is record of a pamphlet written by Franklin, probably in 1758, entitled "The Interest of Great Britain considered with regard to her Colonies and the Acquisitions of Canada and Guadaloupe." It was the argument of the writer that as long as Canada remained in the hands of the French, there could be no assured safety for the English Colonies in North America, and that the interruption of the peace of those Colonies could easily con-

stitute a factor for war not only in America, but in Europe. It is probable that not even Franklin himself had realized that the destruction of the French power in North America, with the removal of the apprehension of the Colonies of invasion by French and Indian troops, brought to the Colonies the first suggestion for an independent nationality. The success of Wolfe at Quebec, in 1758, was the forerunner of the success of the Colonials, through the surrender of Cornwallis in 1781, in establishing the American Republic.

Franklin's contentions were maintained in the peace of Paris of 1783. He was, as said, re-asserting the principles of the great Charter. The American Republic was founded on those principles and it constitutes today the greatest and most powerful example of representative government that the world has known. It is appropriate today to honor the memory of Franklin, whose service was of the greatest importance in framing the foundations for the Republic. The wisdom of Franklin was shown, however, not only in his service as a diplomatist and political leader, but in his interest in the universe in which he lived, and in his wise counsel that all men should, like himself, intelligently make the most out of that universe.

In the range of his interests, Franklin was prepared to co-operate in any work that men were taking up that was likely to prove of service to humanity. His service was available for "*quicquid agunt homines.*"

It is fitting that today, over two centuries after the birth of our first American Philosopher, American citizens and English-speaking peoples throughout the world should honor his memory.

# Franklin, Father of the United States Postal Service

By Harry S. New
*As Postmaster General*

The father of the United States Postal Service. Upon no other than Benjamin Franklin, first Postmaster General, could such a title be conferred. There are no other claimants for the honor—no other contestants.

Yet, with all that such a title implies, it does not quite do justice to the illustrious Franklin, whose far-seeing eye and capable hand laid the groundwork for what has since become the greatest postal service in all history.

It may even be said, and proved through a line of reasoning that I shall attempt to develop, that to Franklin, more than to any other one man, belongs the greatest credit for the very existence, as such, of the United States of America.

In many fields of endeavor Franklin demonstrated a superiority that has well merited for him the appellation of "The Many-Sided Franklin," and, in the eyes of posterity, fixes him as the only person in the world's history, perhaps, who was a "jack of all trades" and at the same time their master.

America owes a lasting debt of gratitude to this man who did very many things for the advancement of mankind and, more particularly, for the advancement of the little group of British Colonies in America which gave him being and which he loved so devotedly.

Yet, to my mind, in none of his many activities did Franklin perform a greater service for what was later to become the United States of America than he accomplished in his efforts in connection with the postal service.

Were it not for the well-ordered and efficient mail service which Franklin built up, bringing into existence with it a system of highways connecting the hitherto widely separated and independent Colonies, the War of Rebellion might never have taken place.

The post system, although crude in the light of today, was, under Franklin's guiding hand, really a model, comparing favorably with similar services conducted on the older continent. It resulted in the creation of a closer communion, a better understanding and a bond of sympathy between the various Colonies whose previous interchanges of communication had been confined to dealings with England.

This separate and independent existence of the American Colonies was due in part to the fact that perhaps no two of them were drawn from the same class, the same sect, or the same geographical division of the Mother Country. Then, too, the absence of roads or highways, and, in many instances, even of trails, discouraged intercourse except of a sporadic nature.

Beyond the intermittent warfare waged against the Indians, the Colonies had little in common. Their feelings toward one another are best described perhaps by the words jealousy and envy. Except for the fact that they each paid allegiance to the same King, they were not unlike thirteen independent nations.

This was the situation when Franklin, after having

served sixteen years as postmaster at Philadelphia, was named in 1753 with William Hunter as joint Deputy Postmaster General for the Colonies under the British Crown.

That he had more in mind than the mere performance of a duty well done when he undertook the work of building up the straggling and precarious mail system then in existence is indicated by an incident that occurred during the Albany Congress the year following his appointment.

The Albany Congress was a meeting of deputies from the various Colonies called in 1754 at Albany, N. Y., primarily to provide for a concerted defense against the Indians.

Franklin, who had been looking forward for many years to a more pretentious relationship among the Colonies, attended the Congress as a delegate from Pennsylvania and immediately presented a "plan of union," designed to bind the Colonies closer together in governmental matters generally, as well as to supply the more pressing need for a common defense against the marauding redskins.

Franklin had studied the question for years and was well aware of provincial prejudices and antipathies which must be overcome before the various Colonies could be induced to join in any sort of a binding agreement.

His plan of union was developed with this consciousness in view and every precaution was taken to avoid offending the acute sensibilities of the Colonial delegates. He supported his plan by pointing out that the "Six Nations," composed of ignorant savages, had formed a union that "has subsisted for ages and appears indissoluble,"

and deplored the fact that "a like union should be impracticable for a dozen English Colonies to whom it is more necessary and must be more advantageous."

Objections and difficulties were ironed out and the plan was unanimously agreed to by the Congress, but the assemblies of the several Colonies did not adopt it. They were not yet ready for union. They were too jealous of one another to enter into a binding contract. Also, Franklin's plan, they said, gave too much power to the King. The King rejected it later on the ground that it "left too much in the hands of the Colonists."

Franklin was bitter. "Everyone cries a union is absolutely necessary," he said, "but when it comes to the manner and form of the union, their weak noddles are perfectly distracted."

He then attacked the problem from a different angle —whether by chance or forethought is not revealed. Plunging into his duties as head of the postal system, he set to work to reorganize it.

He first made a tour of inspection of every post office under his jurisdiction, with the exception of that of Charleston, South Carolina. When it is recalled that often six weeks were required for the post rider to forge his way between Philadelphia and Boston, the extent of Franklin's journey and the hardships he must have undergone can be realized and some conception may be had of Franklin's interest in the postal service.

As he went from place to place, he discovered everywhere means for improving the system and immediately issued instructions for the changes he believed necessary. Among the reforms he instituted were:

Inauguration of the penny post in large cities;

Increased frequency of trips between New York, Philadelphia and Boston—in summer, from once a week to tri-weekly, and in winter from twice a month to once a week;

Straightening of routes and speeding up of post riders, resulting in instances where the time of travel was cut in half;

Admission to the mails of all newspapers without discrimination; and

Advertising of unclaimed letters.

For a long time the effect of the resulting increased efficiency was not apparent. Year after year the postal service returned a deficit, amounting, by 1757, to £900 which Franklin paid out of his own purse. Then the tide turned and Franklin's faith and indomitableness were rewarded by a continually growing surplus which, by 1760, had wiped out all previous indebtedness and left a balance of £278, growing in the following year to £494.

During the lean years Franklin not only was digging into his own pocket to make good the deficit incurred, but he was also serving without salary. The agreement with the Crown provided for a salary of £600 yearly, to be divided between himself and his associate, "if they could get it"—as Franklin expressed it—which meant that if revenues exceeded expenditures to that amount, it was to be taken as their emolument for services rendered.

Franklin later was able to boast that the American postal service which, before his régime, had never paid one penny to the King, had been made to yield more than three times the revenue of the Irish post office.

Franklin had proved that cheap postage and regular mail service were paying propositions. In proving that point he planted the seed that has made the American citizen of today the world's most prolific letter writer.

But of far greater significance was the immediate effect upon the Colonies. Separated by barriers of almost impenetrable wilderness and of immense distance, the Colonies, with the coming of cheap postage and dependable service, together with the collateral development of connecting stage roads, found themselves drawn together by ties of communication, ties that developed a common understanding, a mutual sympathy, and the knowledge that the future welfare of the respective communities lay very much along the same course.

Thus Franklin accomplished through the medium of the postal service and the common people what he had failed to do at Albany through the means of statecraft and the political representatives of the Colonies.

Without this spread of common understanding and friendship among the Colonies, engendered through Franklin's untiring efforts in establishing lines of communication and travel, would Boston have dared stage its "Tea Party"?

Would Massachusetts have been so ready to hurl defiance at a weak English King and a tyrannical Parliament without the consciousness of sympathy and support from the other American Colonies?

Would the Minute Men have been so impetuous at Old North Bridge without the abiding faith that thousands of other Minute Men were ready to take up the cause?

If Paul Revere—himself, by the way, a post rider in Franklin's service—had staged his now famous ride before the "union" effected through Franklin's postal service was an accomplished fact, the chances are that the children of today would read of him in their histories, along with other patriots, as a traitor to his country.

England, no doubt, would have speedily put down the little rebellion in the Colony of Massachusetts and that great commonwealth of today would have languished for years under a penance such as only an English King and an English Parliament of those days could have inflicted.

And the other American Colonies, awed at the treatment meted out to Massachusetts would, perhaps, have reviewed their grievances and found them not to be so serious as they had at first thought.

The anger of England was directed towards only one or two of the Colonies, but the others fell in line and made of it a common cause, thanks to the postal service of Franklin which made the contact between them.

And then, after the episode of the "embattled farmers" and "the shot heard round the world," it was Franklin's line of communications that made possible the quick dispatch of the stirring news to the expectant Colonies to the North and far to the South.

It was Franklin's post roads that permitted the rapid recruiting of Washington's continental army from far-flung communities, and later, the transportation of artillery from one battle front to another, an undertaking which would have been virtually impossible over the Indian trails that existed before Franklin's enterprise converted them into traversible highways.

In 1775, the year upon which the Colonists demonstrated at Lexington and at Concord their hostility toward the coercive methods of the British, Franklin's was the only American name generally known abroad. Washington had received some recognition in military circles for his connection with the ill-fated expedition of General Braddock, and the name of Samuel Adams was well known in Parliament for his rebellious utterances against the Stamp Tax and for his suspected leadership in the Boston "Tea Party" episode. The names of other Americans known in Europe, except in the most limited circles, could be counted on the fingers of one hand.

But Franklin's "Poor Richard's Almanack," which had been translated into most written languages, his fame as a diplomatist, and his scientific researches, including the researches in electricity, had brought him world renown.

In England, where he spent sixteen years as agent of various American Colonies, he was as much at home as in his native land. In France, where he was a frequent visitor during his stay in London, he was received in the highest circles and was known and loved by the common people. Men tipped their hats to him on the street.

About the time of the outbreak of the Revolution men called Franklin the "Father of his Country," a title that later passed to Washington. Yet, we find Thomas Carlyle, whose birth dated five years after Franklin's death, thus giving him some degree of historical perspective, characterizing Franklin as the "Father of all the Yankees."

Neither of these titles, however, was bestowed upon him for his services in developing the postal system and

establishing the lines of communication and intercourse which led to mutual understanding among the peoples of the several Colonies. That great work was too near at hand, too close for proper perspective, to permit of a full realization of its value.

It was something that had grown up gradually through the years, under Franklin's guiding hand. It was taken as a matter of course, much as we of today look upon the modern postal service, without giving heed to the infinite amount of detail and of thought necessary to produce the intricate machinery that speeds a letter unerringly to its destination, be that the remotest section of the country, or the most thickly populated community.

Neither do I believe that historians generally give to Franklin's postal service the importance it deserves as a contributing factor in the early development of our country, or as an incentive to the later progress of trade and commerce, that in a few short years, as time goes, made of thirteen little-known and insignificant communities the most prosperous nation of the earth.

# Franklin and the Navy

By Curtis D. Wilbur
*As Secretary of the Navy*

One of the most famous vessels of the American Navy, the *Bon Homme Richard,* was named in honor of Benjamin Franklin. It was so named by John Paul Jones, who wished to pay a well-merited compliment "to a great and good man to whom I am under obligations and who honors me with his friendship."

Franklin first aided the then non-existent sea power of America when he was a member of the Continental Congress in 1775. He cast his vote in favor of building the first American fleet. By this action of December 13th, Congress committed itself to the establishment of a naval force consisting of 13 frigates. Among the vessels constructed by the several states' Navies in consequence of this act, were the *Hancock, Boston, Warren, Providence, Randolph* and *Washington.*

Franklin's actual contact with the Navy came, however, when he was in 1776 appointed one of the three commissioners to France.

He sailed on October 26, 1776, on the *Reprisal,* a vessel commanded by Captain Wickes. The latter, knowing he must evade the watchful British cruisers, drove his small vessel with all sail, making Quiberon Bay in 33 days.

The voyage was a rough, exciting one for a man of Franklin's years which at that time totaled 70. The *Reprisal* was chased by the cruisers and not only managed

THE WHITE HOUSE
WASHINGTON

March 30, 1927.

My dear Dr. Johnson:

You have asked me to say something about Benjamin Franklin on the occasion of the unveiling of his bust in the Hall of Fame.

It was inevitable that Benjamin Franklin should have been chosen with approximate unanimity in the first election of Great Americans for the Hall of Fame. No man was more usefully and variously associated with the development of the Colonies and the birth and early growth of our Nation. His courage and vision, marked by industry and practicality, his shrewd knowledge of human nature, and his ability to bring things to pass were directed over a wide field of accomplishment. His place in your galaxy of our great citizens would have been secure as a representative of any one of a number of your classifications of eminence.

Printer, editor, publisher, business man, financier, economist and teacher of thrift, philosopher, moralist, and advocate of the simple life, scientist and patron of education, philanthropist, statesman, diplomat - and above all a man and a patriot, he is claimed as their own by more groups than any other person in our history. With truth he has been characterized as: "A Man" so various, that he seemed not one but all mankind's epitome. Some one has called him a typical American; rather might we think of him as a composite American. Born in poverty, he was apprenticed in a print shop and always thought of himself as a printer. "He that hath a trade, hath an estate", is one of his famous maxims. By thrift and industry he accumulated a competency which enabled him to devote the latter half of his life to public service. By one fitted to judge, Franklin has been referred to as "the greatest of all diplomatic representatives of this country". As the collector of funds for the Revolutionary War, he might be known as the originator of the "Liberty Loan". He has been called the Father of our Navy; and as Postmaster General of the Colonies founded the first adequate postal system here. Not only does our government recognize his great services, but more and more are we coming to realize how much we owe to Benjamin Franklin's genius in all manner of human relationships and endeavors.

Very truly yours,

Calvin Coolidge

Dr. Robert Underwood Johnson,
Director, Hall of Fame,
New York University,
New York City.

AN HISTORIC TRIBUTE

to evade them but as she neared the coast of France captured two British vessels well laden with salable cargoes. These prizes when sold contributed greatly toward defraying the expenses of the *Reprisal's* trip.

Franklin's duties in France were numerous, and it was here he proved a staunch friend of our infant navy. He was a merchant, banker, judge of Admiralty, consul, director of the Navy, ambassador to France, and negotiator with England for the exchange of prisoners, and for terms of peace.

His naval duties were many and varied. He spent much time and energy in the execution of those duties. Paul Jones and other captains of our Navy who were cruising against British commerce on that side of the Atlantic made their headquarters in French ports and were under the direction of Franklin.

He says, in one of his letters of this period, that the management of the Continental ships of war and their prizes fell entirely upon himself; and that the work along those lines was a "most complicated and embarrassing part of our affairs."

Franklin had to act as a Court of Admiralty in the matter of prizes and their cargoes, settle disputes between the officers and men, advance their pay, and see that the ships were repaired and refitted. He handled hundreds of prizes made by American captains, and shipped cargoes of arms, ammunition and clothing to America.

He not only disbursed large sums on naval materials, but arranged loans to purchase equipment, clothing and other naval supplies.

One of the duties of Continental vessels in European

waters was to capture Englishmen and exchange them for American Naval prisoners. The Americans were imprisoned in Forton Prison at Portsmouth, and Mill Prison at Plymouth. They suffered from insufficient food, clothing and fuel. Franklin was greatly touched by their misery and want. He did all within his power to soften the rigors of their prison life by sending them money and clothing. His efforts to aid these unfortunate men were a most important part of his many notable achievements in France.

By his friendship for Paul Jones he rendered a great service to his country, for it was Franklin's foresight and resolution that kept Jones in European waters, when Lee and other interests endeavored strenuously to have him sent to America. Fortunately, Franklin's will prevailed and Jones was left to fulfill the genius of his destiny, and contribute so much to the successful termination of our struggle for independence.

In the spring of 1779, Franklin, then American Minister at the Court of France, and Lafayette planned an expedition against the coast of England. Lafayette was to command the French troops and Jones, in the *Bon Homme Richard*, was to command the sea forces. The *Alliance*, 36, Captain Landais, was to be a part of Jones' fleet. This plan miscarried, and it was not until August 13th that Captain Jones got to sea with his fleet of five naval vessels and two privateers. The expense of the cruise was borne by the French Government. Jones' orders as Commodore of the Fleet were signed by Franklin and the expedition sailed under American colors.

During the cruise that followed Landais became in-

subordinate, leaving Jones to join him, when and where he, Landais, pleased. Off Flamborough Head, on September 23, 1779, Jones' Fleet fell in with His Majesty's ships, the *Serapis* and *Countess of Scarborough*. There ensued the famous naval battle which is recorded as one of the fiercest in naval warfare.

Paul Jones won the fight without any aid from the *Alliance*, which hindered rather than helped the *Bon Homme Richard*.

After the return of Paul Jones and Landais to Texel in Holland, there arose a naval discord between the two men. To Franklin was assigned the task of investigating the charges brought by the two officers. Through the lengthy and trying dispute that ensued, Franklin, convinced that Jones was in the right, proved a great friend to the latter and did the only thing he could do under the circumstances: referred the trouble to Congress and to a constituted court martial in America. Jones came out the victor in the dispute, due largely to Franklin's firm stand in his behalf.

Jones and Franklin now succeeded in obtaining from the French Government the loan of the *Ariel*. After this vessel had been equipped and Jones placed in command, Franklin, weary of the many arduous tasks connected with the administration of naval affairs in France, asked to be relieved of the duty.

While in France, Franklin negotiated the Treaty of Alliance with that country, the immediate fruit of which was the powerful aid sent us by France in the squadron of the Count D'Estaing, consisting of eleven ships of the line, six frigates, and a number of land forces.

The Navy's appreciation of Franklin has been evidenced by the fact that through the years of her growth there has always been a vessel bearing the name of Franklin, until a few years ago. These vessels had a lengthy and noteworthy service in the Navy.

The first *Franklin*, a 74 gun ship, was in service until 1852. On her first cruise, in 1817, she conveyed the Hon. Richard Rush to England as Minister to that country.

The second *Franklin*, a frigate built in 1854, bore a prominent part in the Civil War. In 1867 she was the flagship of Admiral Farragut on his European cruise, and later was for many years the receiving ship at Norfolk, Virginia.

This famous old vessel was sold in 1916, but at the Naval Academy is preserved her figurehead, a representation of Franklin, a brilliant and able friend of the Navy in our hour of need.

# Franklin, the Soldier

*War Department*

By Hugh L. Scott
*Major General, U. S. A. (Retired)*

It has been said many times that Benjamin Franklin was one of the most versatile and many-sided men that the world has ever produced, but we seldom hear him mentioned as a soldier.

Franklin dwelt in a community of Quakers, whose doctrines and numbers greatly influenced the public sentiment of the City of Philadelphia of his date. He was, moreover, of kindly, humane disposition and unwarlike temperament. Nevertheless, the conditions of his day surrounding the Colony of Pennsylvania caused him to take a very prominent part in the defense of the Indian frontier in the French and Indian War and in the War of the Revolution. Franklin had by nature a dislike for the waste and cruelties of war—a dislike which is shared by all the eminent soldiers of modern times; he often stated, "There never was a good war or a bad peace." He might have qualified this as referring to wars of aggression, for he took part vigorously himself in wars of defense, and no student of his life could ever believe that he would countenance a peace at any price that would barter away the liberties of his countrymen, as the above saying, without qualification, would indicate.

Franklin was endowed with an abundance of moral and physical courage, manifested on all occasions. His celebrated remark at the signing of the Declaration of Inde-

pendence—"We must all hang together or assuredly we shall all hang separately"—plainly shows that he was fully aware of the danger to life and property they were all running, in case of disaster to their cause; but notwithstanding this danger, each boldly pledged his life, his fortune and his sacred honor, with a grave chance of losing all save honor.

Franklin had no part or parcel with the pacifists of his day and ours. He believed thoroughly in preparation. He wrote and published a pamphlet in 1744, during King George's War, entitled "Plain Truth," which seems to have started the first successful effort to create a large defensive movement in the Colony of Pennsylvania. He said "We have, it is true, had a long peace with the Indians, but it is a long peace indeed, as well as a long lane, that has no ending."

He described the selfish policy of "some in the City, who might say, 'An Indian war on the frontiers will not affect us'; others who lived in the country, when they were told of the danger the City was in from attempts at sea, might say: 'The enemy will be satisfied with the plunder of the town . . . let the town take care of itself.' " Upon this he remarked, "These are not mere suppositions, for I have heard some talk in this strange manner," and he asked forcefully, "Is not the whole province one body?" He next described the injury to trade and urged that the wealth so greatly increased would furnish the strongest temptation to attack—a fact as true now as then. "Some say, 'Shall we fight to defend the Quakers? No! let the trade perish, and the City burn.' Till of late, I could scarce believe the story of him who refused to pump in a sinking

ship, because one on board, whom he hated, would be saved by it as well as himself."

The effect of this pamphlet was surprising. He was called on for a draft of association, which, having been settled upon after consultation with a few friends, was read out at a large meeting he had called together. After an address by him, it was signed by about two hundred men. Copies were then distributed through the country, with the result that the subscribers amounted to ten thousand men. A fort of logs and earth was built and soon furnished with cannon for the defense of Philadelphia.

So much for Franklin's belief in preparedness and his part in securing it.

Franklin relates further: "The officers of the companies composing the Philadelphia regiment being met, chose me for their Colonel, but, conceiving myself unfit, I declined that station," which opinion was due probably to his lack of experience in military training. Many of us are not restrained by Franklin's modesty; we are like the man mentioned by Sydney Smith who was "equally ready to cut off a leg as command the Channel Fleet." Everyone can run a hotel successfully or command an army, before he tries.

It was thought by some that Franklin would offend the Quakers by his warlike activities, and, since they formed a great majority, he might lose his seat in the Assembly. But he was chosen again unanimously, as usual, at the next election. "Indeed," he says, "I found that a much greater number of them [Quakers] than I could have imagined, tho' against offensive war, were clearly for the defensive."

After a time of peace, lasting only four years, came the still longer and more important French and Indian War, during the first part of which the disastrous defeat of General Braddock occurred. Danger and destruction were brought to the smaller settlements within forty miles of Philadelphia. Franklin was sent by the Assembly to General Braddock at Fredericktown, Maryland, in April, 1755. He found him unable to move, the officers declaring "the expedition was then at an end, being impossible," as the General had been able to procure only twenty-five wagons, some of which were not in a serviceable condition. Franklin having mentioned that in Pennsylvania "almost every farmer had his waggon," the General then begged him to use his influence in procuring him means of transport, "with the result that in two weeks, one hundred and fifty waggons, with two hundred and fifty-nine carrying horses, were on the march for the camp." Franklin states that the owners of the wagons, "alleging that they did not know General Braddock, or what dependence might be had on his promise, insisted on my bond for the performance, which I accordingly gave them." He also expended over one thousand pounds of his own money in forwarding supplies after the army had marched —for part of which he was never repaid. Franklin acted in concert with the Governor to supply Braddock's army, and "when the shocking news arrived of his defeat, the Governor sent in haste for me to consult with him. . . . He would have me undertake the conduct of . . . an expedition . . . and he proposed to commission me as General. I had not so good an opinion of my military abilities . . . and the project was dropt."

During this same period Franklin was engaged in the Assembly in raising a tax of sixty thousand pounds for military purposes, the proprietaries having been shamed into giving five thousand pounds by the clamor raised against them in England, they having always pledged their Governors to veto bills taxing their large properties.

He wrote also the militia law which was passed, and printed a fictitious dialogue, which answered objections made against it, and during the fall he was kept busy procuring and forwarding arms and ammunition to the frontiers. In the latter part of December we find Franklin at Easton in charge of a military expedition to the frontier. The Moravian village of Gnadenhut, some twenty miles above Bethlehem, had been burned by the Indians and the people massacred.

Franklin writes, after the passage of the militia law, that "while the several companies in the city and country, were forming, and learning their exercise, the Governor prevailed with me to take charge of our North-western frontier which was infested by the enemy, and provide for the defense of the inhabitants by raising troops and building a line of forts. I undertook this military business tho' I did not conceive myself well qualified for it. He gave me a commission with full powers and a parcel of blank commissions for officers to be given to whom I thought fit. I had but little difficulty in raising men, having soon five hundred and sixty under my command." With these he built a line of stockaded forts to defend the line of the frontier, and was engaged in scouting for the enemy when he was recalled by the Governor to take part in a session of the Assembly. Franklin writes on his re-

turn to Philadelphia, "I found the association went on swimmingly, the inhabitants that were not Quakers, having pretty generally come into it, formed themselves into companies, and chose their captains, lieutenants and ensigns, according to the new law. The officers, meeting, chose me to be Colonel of the regiment, which I this time accepted . . . we paraded about twelve hundred well-looking men with a company of artillery who had been furnished with six brass field-pieces, which they had become so expert in the use of as to fire twelve times in a minute."

It is this Colonelcy that the descendants of Franklin in this later day rely on mainly for their eligibility for membership in the Society of Colonial Wars, a Society in which many of them have been active.

"Being about to set out on a journey to Virginia," writes Franklin, "the officers of my regiment took it into their heads to escort me out of town as far as the Lower Ferry. Just as I was getting on horseback they came to my door, between thirty and forty mounted, and all in their uniforms. . . . What made it worse was that, as soon as we began to move they drew their swords and rode with them naked all the way. Somebody wrote an account of this to the proprietor and it gave him great offense. No such honor had been paid him when in the province, nor to any of his governors; and he said it was only proper to princes of the royal blood, which may be true for aught I know, who was, and still am, ignorant of the etiquette in such cases. This silly affair, however, greatly increased his rancour against me, which was before not a little on account of my conduct in the Assembly respecting the exemption of his estate from taxation, which I had always

oppos'd very warmly and not without severe reflections on his meanness and injustice of contending for it."

These remarks by Franklin show the independence of his course in the Assembly; and the matter of fact way in which he alludes to his setting off on the long journey on horseback to Virginia by himself stamps him as a man of athletic force and endurance, thoroughly accustomed to the out-of-doors.

During the first part of the Revolution we find Franklin engaged in pushing military affairs as Chairman of the Committee of Safety of the Continental Congress, having charge of military affairs. Before the close of 1776, however, Franklin was sent as Commissioner to the Court of France, where his services abroad as a diplomat were far more valuable to his countrymen than any fighting he might be able to do at home, and his military career was here ended. His military experience up to the Revolution was a little greater than that of some who rose to high eminence in the war; and as Franklin was usually successful in everything he undertook, it is reasonable to suppose that he, too, would have reached high rank in war, had he not been so valuable as a diplomat.

A consideration of the foregoing will cause a recognition of the fact that the Colonial Governors, as well as every element of the Colony, relied during a long period upon the courage, patriotism, common sense and fidelity of Franklin—as well as upon his ability to raise money, enlist and organize troops, provide them with food, transportation, clothing and munitions of war, and the troops themselves were willing to trust him to lead them in the field.

Owing possibly, at least in part, to Franklin's long association with Quakers, he had no liking for the ceremonies and trappings of war, which, however disliked, long experience has found to be necessary in armies. Nor did he cherish any ambition for military glory and the command of troops. But he met every emergency encountered during a long life, both in peace and war, to the admiration of his contemporaries and the satisfaction of his people.

Thus through his military service we may add another brilliant facet to the history of the many-sided Franklin.*

* The author has obtained much of his material for the foregoing article from an unpublished address delivered by the late Rev. Charles W. Duane, a descendant of Franklin, before the Boston Chapter of the Society of Colonial Wars. The manuscript was obtained from his son, Russell Duane, of Philadelphia.

# Franklin, the Father of Thrift in America

By Andrew W. Mellon

*Secretary of the Treasury*

Franklin may well be called the Father of Thrift in America. He first taught, by example as well as by precept, the necessity for saving, and pointed out that thrift consists, not in hoarding, but in wise spending and sound investment.

It is due to his influence, more perhaps than to that of any other man, that America early learned to spend her surplus earnings on further production rather than selfish enjoyment. As a result there has been built up in this country a great and efficient economic and industrial organization which is responsible in a large measure for our present prosperity. It must not be forgotten that the creation of such an organization is due to no happy accident but to certain fundamental qualities of honesty, thrift and a belief in the necessity of hard work, which Franklin helped to inculcate in the American character.

The influence of such a man is incalculable. Generations of Americans have read the maxims of "Poor Richard" and have been inspired by him to a course of action which has changed the entire direction of their lives.

I know that this was true in the case of my own father. I remember hearing him tell how he happened, when a boy, upon a copy of Franklin's "Autobiography," and of the influence it had upon him. In writing of it afterwards he said: "It delighted me with a wider view of life and

inspired me with new ambition. It turned my thoughts into new channels. . . . For so poor and friendless a boy to be able to become a merchant or a professional man had before seemed an impossibility; but here was Franklin, poorer than myself, who by industry, thrift and frugality had become learned and wise, and elevated to wealth and fame. The maxims of 'Poor Richard' exactly suited my sentiments. I read the book again and again, and wondered if I might not do something in the same line by similar means. . . . After that I was more industrious when at school and more constant than ever in reading and study during leisure hours. I regard the reading of Franklin's 'Autobiography' as the turning point of my life."

Countless men owe their success to the fact that they based their conduct on the rules laid down by Franklin; and to the character thus formed can be traced also the building up of many of the great enterprises which play so large a part in the life of America today. It is necessary only to point to the work of men such as Carnegie, Frick, Rockefeller, Ford and others, who started life, as Franklin did, with no advantages other than those of character, thrift, ability and a determination to succeed in spite of all obstacles.

It is men like these who have inspired others and have by their example given to the average man a belief in the possibility of success. This belief is one of the distinguishing characteristics of this country and will, so long as it persists, set no limit to what America can achieve.

# Franklin, the Patron of Thrift

*American Bankers Association*

By W. Espey Albig

*Deputy Manager*

Benjamin Franklin owes his outstanding position as a patron of thrift to his ingenious and practical turn of mind, together with his writings.

His wise sayings, which brought him his first prominence as the patron of thrift, were gathered from many sources and have come to be regarded as a part of Franklin's heritage left to his countrymen.

Franklin lived at a time when money was scarce, when the home was a self-contained unit economically and spiritually. In many cases, the aim of industry was not evident. Markets were few and poor. Travel was difficult and in some cases dangerous. Creature comforts were yet in the future. Poverty was causing vexation.

The great majority of people in Pennsylvania were dwellers in rural areas, and lost sight of their ultimate aims and ambitions in the immediate processes at hand. Franklin visioned this situation and attempted, through his homely sayings, to have the people see it, understand their relation to it, and as a result prosper personally.

There is no doubt that Franklin was consciously attempting to develop the idea of personal success among all the people. His frequent references as to the effect upon him of Dr. Mather's "Essay upon the Good that is to be Devised and Designed by those who Desire to Answer the Great End of Life and to Do Good While they Live," and to which Franklin referred as the "Essays to

do Good," indicate the deep hold the essays made upon him. They developed a desire on his part to be of the greatest possible benefit to his countrymen during his lifetime. He regarded the welfare of the people as of first importance and, as he became successful, encouraged his countrymen to do likewise.

The thriftiness attributed to Franklin came largely from his desire first to explore in many fields and then to utilize the results of his explorations. He organized the first fire company in Philadelphia, so that property might be saved in case of fire. Also in his fertile brain the first American fire insurance company originated, devised in order that the parachute of mutual protection might safeguard members from loss by fire.

Franklin discovered that lightning and electricity are identical and invented the lightning rod, which he urged as a protection against fire by lightning.

In Franklin's time, buildings were warmed by heat from great fireplaces in which logs were burned. The securing of wood for these voracious hearths required much time and effort, since the chimneys were without dampers and carried off most of the heat. Franklin saw this wastefulness, and designed a stove to replace the fireplace. The stove became immediately popular.

It has been said that "necessity is the mother of invention." Possibly a certain physical laziness is frequently the basis of invention, or a desire to achieve results by a shorter method than that ordinarily employed. Franklin made one pair of spectacles, near- and far-sighted glasses, take the place of two pairs. In fact, he used his own invention himself.

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THE APOTHEOSIS OF BENJAMIN FRANKLIN

*From the mural by N. C. Wyeth*

Prior to Franklin's time, there was no satisfactory method of making duplicate copies of correspondence. Franklin invented a copying press.

One great cause of physical discomfort in Franklin's time was ill-built chimneys, which caused the house frequently to be filled with smoke. He discovered the correct principles of chimney construction and caused information concerning them to be published widely, thus adding to home comfort.

Franklin early observed the prevalent practice of allowing the well-lighted morning hours to be unused in gainful employment, and business and pleasure carried over into the evening, when artificial lighting was necessary. His essay on daylight saving is a classic.

These are among the factors which have made Benjamin Franklin known as the apostle of thrift. In fact, the teaching of Franklin as to fire insurance has become a part of the social inheritance of the people, as is evidenced by a twentieth century happening. In a Pennsylvania rural district, a farmer's barn, on which there was no insurance, was consumed by fire. His neighbors prepared to raise a purse to enable him to rebuild. In reply to questions about insurance, he said that he did not believe in insurance, and that when his new buildings were erected they would carry no insurance. The neighbors regarded him as lacking in thrift, and no purse was raised.

There is a belief that Franklin's claim to thriftiness rests purely upon those maxims which have to do with personal industry, such as "He who would thrive must rise at five"; "Early to bed, early to rise, makes a man healthy, wealthy, and wise"; "He who by the plow would

thrive, himself must either hold or drive"; "A gloved cat catches no mice"; and the further fact that he carried to his printing house in a wheelbarrow the paper for his own publications.

The fact remains that Franklin might have edited wise maxims, practiced his own precepts and performed the most menial services, and yet remained comparatively poor and without distinction. It was his large conception of things and his inquisitive nature, coupled with his desire to improve everything which he touched, which brought about his outstanding position as a patron of thrift.

Another evidence of Franklin's thrift is shown in the request he made of his employer, James Franklin, that he be given in money one-half what it cost his brother to pay for his meals. When Franklin secured this money he did not spend it all, but utilized it as a tool for advancement. In other words, he early realized that financial independence was at the basis of personal success in a material way. Financial independence required that he have money.

Necessarily, not all of Franklin's ventures turned out well; he tried, however, so many new things at a time when there was so much room for improvement, and brought to his problems such a wealth of knowledge, such a background of sound reason and a mind trained in analytical research and constructive qualities, that comparatively a large number of them were successful. They brought fame to him and happier living conditions to people generally.

Another characteristic of Franklin which establishes him as an apostle of thrift was his liberal-mindedness.

Notwithstanding his many inventions of value, he patented none of them, thus foregoing all personal profit from their use.

In his "Autobiography," Franklin explains his attempt to cultivate all the virtues and finds that pride is the most difficult vice to subdue. Franklin says, when he cultivated deep humility, he found himself proud of his humility.

There are those who say that Franklin's philosophy of thrift is purely a worldly philosophy, and his appeal is to the lower instincts. This scarcely does Franklin justice. A material prosperity is usually precedent to a growth in culture and in knowledge of the arts. The highest type of civilization has always had behind it a background of material prosperity. Franklin lived at a time when natural resources needed to be brought into subjection by man, and we have not yet passed from that period.

All about him, Franklin saw methods which might be improved. He saw superstition resulting from the action of natural laws which at that time were not recognized. He saw practices of the most ignoble sort springing from superstitious beliefs. He set for himself the task not only of making physical laws plain to the people, but also of enabling them to understand these laws and profit by their operation.

No small factor in Franklin's success as a patron of thrift came from his sense of the dramatic. When he tells of his arrival in Philadelphia, we readily visualize his appearance, with the rolls of bread together with extra clothing in his pocket. The wheeling of his paper in the sight of his townsmen, the keeping of his light burning in his office late at night, the provincial flag with the divided

snake "Unite or Die," the clever attack on his competitor in making almanacs, his use of wood cuts and advertisements, and his funds to be placed at interest for one hundred years—all show his appreciation of the dramatic.

Possibly, the greatest factor which caused Franklin to be called the patron saint of thrift was the fact that his messages were put in terms which the people who needed them could understand. He dealt in his maxims with illustrations taken from rural and domestic pursuits. The particular efforts "to do good" which brought him the affection and respect of the common people had to do with factors entering into their lives: plowing; smoking chimneys; stoves for heating; fertilizer for the ground; schools; hospitals; and problems of income management. He realized that the basic elements making for the success of a state lie first in the homely, rugged virtues of the ordinary person and then in the mastery on the part of these people of the greatest number of processes affecting their living.

Benjamin Franklin would have been regarded as a great man in any stage of the world's history, by reason of his intense curiosity, his high intelligence, and his ability to adapt himself to the conditions of his time. However, the economic, financial and industrial background of his time afforded him, with his practical spirit, and his dynamic personality, a more than usual opportunity to enter to advantage into the lives of Americans. This position he has not lost among the common people of the country to this day, who regard him, and rightfully so, as the patron saint of thriftiness, not in a pinchpenny way but in the larger meaning of the term.

# Franklin, the Father of American Union

*Society of the Descendants of the Signers of the Declaration of Independence*

By Russell Duane
*Ex-President General*

To Benjamin Franklin was vouchsafed the first vision of the future United States of America. It was at the Congress of Albany, convened by the Colonial Governors in the year 1754, to devise means for the common defense, that Franklin first proclaimed his conviction that the safety and protection of the Colonies required the formation of a general government. The plan which he brought forward provided for the appointment of a President General by the Crown and the election, by the various Colonial assemblies, of a legislative body to be called the Grand Council. The powers which they were to exercise resembled in many ways those conferred on the President and on Congress by our Federal Constitution. This scheme of government has since been known in history as "The Albany Plan of Union." It was unanimously adopted by the delegates to the Congress, but it was defeated when brought to a vote in the Colonial assemblies. Referring to the "Albany Plan" in his "Autobiography," Franklin said, "Its fate was singular; the assemblies did not adopt it as they all thought there was too much *prerogative* in it, and in England it was judg'd to have too much of the *democratic*."

The Colonial *union* advocated by the Congress of

Albany, but not accomplished, was largely intended as a measure of defense against the French and the Indians; but the idea was destined in time to become an effective measure of defense against the Mother Country itself. The "Albany Plan," therefore, performed a most valuable function in bringing home to our forefathers the idea of co-operation between the Colonies. It gave them a conception of the advantages to be derived from *union,* and paved the way for those united efforts made twenty years later in the cause of political freedom and independence. As illustrated by Aesop's celebrated fable of the bundle of sticks, Franklin believed that England might break each Colony if taken separately, but be utterly unable to break them collectively. Commenting on the Albany Plan in his "Foundations of the Republic," President Coolidge said (page 116): "The people feared this (plan) would destroy their local government, leaving them at the mercy of a distant Parliament, *while the English authorities feared that by revealing to the Colonies an accurate knowledge of their own power it would inspire ambitions for independence.* So the plan of Franklin at that time found no support on either side of the Atlantic."

The great historian Bancroft gave eloquent expression to the same thought when he wrote: "Franklin was the true father of the American Union. It was he who went forth to lay the foundation of that great design at Albany; and in New York he lifted up his voice. Here among us he appeared as the apostle of the Union. It was Franklin who suggested the Congress of 1774; and but for the wisdom, and the confidence that wisdom inspired,

it is a matter of doubt whether that Congress would have taken effect. It was Franklin who suggested the bond of the Union which binds these States from Florida to Maine. Franklin was the greatest diplomatist of the eighteenth century. He never spoke a word too much; he never failed to speak the right word at the right season."

Franklin's residence in London, which (excepting a period of eighteen months) continued from 1757 to 1775, gave him an opportunity to exemplify in his own experience and activities the advantages of Colonial union. Having been sent abroad by the Colonial Assembly of his own State to adjust certain disputes relating to taxation, he became the accredited Diplomatic Agent to Great Britain of the Colonies of Pennsylvania, Georgia, New Jersey and Massachusetts. In many of the negotiations which he conducted in behalf of these four Colonies, he was in reality speaking for America. For example, he strenuously opposed the Stamp Act when it was introduced in Parliament in the year 1765; and his examination by the House of Commons the following year was largely responsible for its repeal. Edmund Burke is quoted as saying that "the scene reminded him of a master examined by a parcel of school boys"; and George Whitefield, the great preacher, wrote that Franklin "gained immortal honor by his behavior at the bar of the House." Sparks says, "There was no event in Franklin's life more creditable to his talents and character, or which gave him so much celebrity, as this examination before the House of Commons."

Franklin's efforts in behalf of measures of conciliation by Parliament and in otherwise promoting the interests

of the American Colonies as a whole, undoubtedly increased the sense of unity among them and Franklin was largely responsible for their united action in electing the first Continental Congress which met in Philadelphia in 1774.

While he was thus promoting a sentiment of union among the Colonists in America, Franklin's contact with prominent Englishmen during his residence in London developed in his mind a still broader vision, in which he was more than a century ahead of his time. This was nothing less than a conception of the British Empire as constituted at the present time, but with the American Colonies included. He pictured to Lord Chatham and other British statesmen the future expansion of the American Colonies to the Pacific Ocean, increasing enormously the wealth, power and prestige of the Empire. It was his thought that each of the British Colonies, scattered throughout the world, should become a self-governing unit, but at the same time an integral part of one great imperial whole—a world-wide union rendering allegiance to one sovereign. Had the ruling British statesmen of that day shared this mighty vision of Franklin, the present enlightened Colonial policy of Great Britain would have been advanced more than a century, the Revolutionary War would have been averted, and the most valuable jewel in the crown of the British Empire would have been saved. In a letter, written after Franklin's death, to the Editor of the Monthly Magazine, his close personal friend, Dr. Joseph Priestley, said:

> "The unity of the British empire, in all its parts, was a favourite idea of his. He used to compare it to a beauti-

ful china vase, which, if once broken, could never be put together again; and so great an admirer was he, at the time, of the British constitution, that he said he saw no inconvenience from its being extended over a great part of the globe. With these sentiments he left England; but when, on his arrival in America, he found the war begun, and that there was no receding, no man entered more warmly into the interests of what he then considered *as his country,* in opposition to that of Great Britain."

Franklin's dream of a world-wide imperial union of all of the British dominions had been shattered, but his earlier dream of *a continental union* of the thirteen American Colonies remained, and to make that dream a reality he dedicated the remaining fifteen years of his life. His efforts to that end form an important chapter in the history not only of America, but of the world. Without those efforts, especially in negotiating the alliance with France, Washington once said the Revolutionary War would have been lost. It has been justly said that Franklin was the only man in the entire history of the world who doubled his reputation after he was seventy years of age.

Upon landing at Philadelphia on May 5, 1775, after his mission of fifteen years at London, Franklin was met with the news of the battle of Lexington. The effect upon him was instantaneous and electrical. He perceived at once that all hope of procuring justice from the governing powers in Great Britain was now vain, and from that moment he became the champion not only of *union,* but also of *independence.* Hitherto he had contemplated a possible struggle for independence only as a last alternative to continued submission to tyrannical oppression. Now he advocated it as the only course open to a liberty-

loving people. Before leaving London he had strenuously stood out against the asserted right of Parliament to change at will the charter and laws of the Province of Massachusetts. In behalf of his constituents he had urged the repeal of the so-called "Massachusetts Acts," and in return had promised personally to pay for the tea thrown into Boston harbor, although it would have exhausted a considerable part of his large fortune. The ministry, however, had insisted that the acts which had amended the Massachusetts charter should remain in effect as "a standing example of the power of Parliament." Whereupon Franklin had written, in one of his closing diplomatic papers, the memorable words, "Massachusetts must suffer all the hazards and mischiefs of war rather than admit the alteration of their charters and laws by Parliament. They who can give up essential liberty to obtain a little temporary safety, deserve neither liberty nor safety." That had been the platform on which he stood on leaving England, and on reaching America he proceeded to enforce it. To him the contest, which he now perceived was inevitable, was a war in defense of elemental human rights.

Franklin's compatriots, in defense of their liberties, rallied to the standard of their great leader. Within twenty-four hours after he had set foot on his own soil the Colonial Assembly elected him a delegate to the second Continental Congress. In that Congress he served on ten important committees, the most arduous being the Committee of Safety, of which he was unanimously elected Chairman. Its sessions often began at six in the morning and were devoted to the almost endless task of

organizing necessary measures for the national defense, such as raising and equipping troops, furnishing them with supplies, erecting fortifications and arming vessels. Franklin himself devised the chevaux-de-frise planted in the channel of the Delaware River to hold off the British fleet. To his arduous legislative duties were added those of the office of Postmaster General, to which Congress shortly appointed him. With two other members of the Congress he was sent on a mission to Cambridge, Massachusetts, to help Washington develop necessary plans for improving the discipline of the army.

During the summer Franklin presented to the Congress a "Plan of Union" which, although not adopted, was the forerunner of the later Articles of Confederation. Each Colony was to have local self government and manage its own internal affairs. A national Congress was to be elected every year to regulate foreign relations. The executive authority was to be vested in a Council of Twelve. All of the thirteen Colonies on the Atlantic seaboard were to be invited to join and also Ireland. Again the thought of *union*, of united effort, was uppermost in his mind. Franklin was also sent on a prolonged and arduous mission to Canada with two other commissioners to secure the adhesion of that Province to the cause of American independence.

As Chairman of the Committee of Secret Correspondence, Franklin was virtually the first Secretary of State. As Chairman of the Committee of Safety, the duties of his office made him the first Secretary of War, likewise the first Secretary of the Navy, of which he is honored as one of the founders.

Franklin's letters between the summers of 1775 and 1776 contain many interesting passages which throw light on his state of mind at this critical period, and also show his indomitable spirit. To his old friend, Dr. Joseph Priestley in London, he wrote in July, 1775: "Enough has happened, one would think, to convince your ministers that the Americans will fight, and that this is a harder nut to crack than they imagined." In another letter to the same correspondent he wrote in October, 1775, "Tell our dear good friend, Dr. Price, who sometimes has his doubts and despondencies about our firmness, that America is determined and unanimous, a very few Tories and placemen excepted, who will probably soon export themselves. Britain, at the expense of three millions, has killed one hundred and fifty Yankees this campaign, which is twenty thousand pounds a head; and at Bunker's Hill she gained a mile of ground, half of which she lost again by our taking post on Ploughed Hill. During the same time sixty thousand children have been born in America. From these *data* his mathematical head will easily calculate the time and expense necessary to kill us all, and conquer our whole territory."

To another friend he wrote on the same day, "We have as yet resolved only on defensive measures. If you would recall your forces and stay at home, we should meditate nothing to injure you. A little time so given for cooling on both sides would have excellent effects. But you will goad and provoke us. You despise us too much; and you are insensible of the Italian adage, that there is no *little enemy*. I am persuaded that the body of the British people are our friends; but they are changeable, and by your

lying gazettes may soon be made our enemies. Our respect for them will proportionably diminish, and I see clearly we are on the high road to mutual enmity, hatred and detestation. A separation of course will be inevitable. It is a million of pities, so fair a plan as we have hitherto been engaged in for increasing strength and empire with public felicity, should be destroyed by the mangling hands of a few blundering ministers. It will not be destroyed; God will protect and prosper it; you will only exclude yourselves from any share in it.... We know that you may do us a great deal of mischief, and are determined to bear it patiently as long as we can. But if you flatter yourselves with beating us into submission, you know neither the people nor the country."

A letter to his friend Josiah Quincy in Boston, written in Philadelphia in April, 1776, throws an interesting light upon Franklin's outlook at that period, "You ask: 'When is the Continental Congress by *general consent* to be formed into a supreme legislature; alliances, defensive and offensive, formed; our ports opened, and a formidable naval force established at the public charge?' I can only answer, at present, that nothing seems wanting but that 'general consent.' The novelty of the thing deters some; the doubt of success, others; the vain hope of reconciliation, many. But our enemies take continually every proper measure to remove these obstacles, and their endeavours are attended with success, since every day furnishes us with new causes of increasing enmity, and new reasons for wishing an eternal separation, so that there is a rapid increase of the formerly small party who were for an independent government."

To his friend Philip Schuyler he wrote in the following month, May, 1776, "We congratulate you on the very valuable prize made at Boston. They threaten us with a mighty force from England and Germany. I trust that before the end of the campaign its inefficacy will be apparent to all the world, our enemies become sick of their projects, and the freedom of America be established on the surest foundation—its own ability to defend it."

At this juncture public sentiment was beginning to move strongly in the direction of complete independence. Following a similar resolution adopted by the House of Burgesses of Virginia, Richard Henry Lee, on June 7, 1776, introduced in Congress his historic resolution that "these united Colonies are and of right ought to be free and independent States, that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is and ought to be totally dissolved." Congress responded instantly to this clarion call for united and patriotic action by appointing, four days later, a committee of five to draft a declaration of independence, consisting of Franklin, Jefferson, Adams, Sherman and Livingston. Jefferson prepared the first draft and submitted it to his colleagues. A recent study of his original manuscript disclosed eleven modifications in Franklin's handwriting. Many of these were merely verbal or were intended to make the language more emphatic; but one is of supreme significance as indicating Franklin's positive conviction of the necessity of a complete severance of relations with the Mother Country. Jefferson's original draft read, "They should declare the causes which impel them to

threaten separation." Franklin struck out the word "threaten" and substituted the word "the." He wished to convey to the world the fact that the separation was an actuality.

All of the members of this Committee and fifty-one other delegates to the Second Continental Congress signed the immortal Declaration, but Franklin had the distinction of being the only American whose signature was attached to all five of the great historic documents of that period, viz., the Declaration of Independence, the Treaty of Amity and Commerce with France, the Treaty of Alliance between France and America, the Treaty of Peace with Great Britain, and the Constitution of the United States.

By the patriotic and perilous action of Franklin and his immortal colleagues, the supreme achievement of July 4, 1776, had been successfully accomplished. All of the thirteen Colonies had united in declaring themselves free and independent. Hitherto the Union had been little more than a rope of sand. To Franklin's contemporaries, both here and abroad, America had meant a series of detached communities differing in their origin, institutions, religion and, in some cases, their language. There were the Puritans of Massachusetts, the Dutch of New York, the Swedes of New Jersey and Delaware, the Quakers and Germans of Pennsylvania, the Roman Catholics of Maryland, the Cavaliers of Virginia. Through the genius of Franklin, more than through the efforts of any other patriot, these heterogeneous masses had been fused into a single united nation, a union of free commonwealths, and their delegates had declared independence in the joint

name of all. But it required more than a mere declaration of rights to vindicate their position. These rights had to be fought for—to be secured by force of arms. Franklin, being over seventy years of age, could not fight with physical weapons, but he could wage war with the more powerful weapons of his experience, wisdom, wit and diplomacy. In the cause of American freedom he gave plentifully of his wealth, he refused proffered emoluments, and on his voyage to Europe in the autumn of 1776 he incurred the risks of accident and capture by the enemy at sea. By the unanimous vote of his colleagues in the Continental Congress he was elected on the first ballot Commissioner to the Court of France; and then followed those eight years of marvellous diplomatic achievement which contributed so greatly to the ultimate success of the American cause.

Returning to his home in Philadelphia in 1785, Franklin crowned his public career by his memorable services, two years later, in the Constitutional Convention. His mature wisdom, his wide experience, his ability to convince, his broad spirit of compromise contributed greatly to bring about that ultimate harmony of conflicting views and interests which made possible the Constitution of the United States.

Visions seen by the great pioneers of history have seldom come to fulfillment within the compass of their lives. It was, however, the privilege of Franklin to witness the realization of his prophetic vision of American Union.

# Franklin and Washington, Fathers of Their Country

*American Scenic and Historic Preservation Society*

By George F. Kunz
*President*

The contacts of Franklins and Washingtons began generations before Benjamin Franklin and George Washington met for the first time in the camp of General Braddock, when that obstinate martinet was preparing for the expedition which ended in his death and the slaughter of his forces by French and Indians. Franklins and Washingtons came from the same English county, Northamptonshire. The Washingtons were the lords of Sulgrave Manor, while the Franklins were sturdy freeholders, as the name indicates, and were blacksmiths and armorers by trade. The eldest son followed it as a master craftsman, while the youngest was always apprenticed to him, in their native village of Ecton, on the great north highway, sixty miles from London. No doubt Franklins of several generations shod the war horses and riveted the armor of Washingtons. Benjamin Franklin's great-great-great-grandfather swung the sledge in the time of Henry the Eighth, when Lawrence Washington was Mayor of Northampton. Franklin's biographers have suggested that his faculty of holding his tongue and making apt comments at opportune times was derived from the nature of the blacksmith's trade. This engaged the smith's attention on the anvil, permitting him to listen to the gossipers

who gathered at the forge and to sum up the discussion in a pregnant phrase when he released the hoof of the horse he was shoeing, or laid down the heavy sledge.

George Washington gained a high impression of Benjamin Franklin's ability and discretion, when the young Virginia Colonel met the Deputy Postmaster General from the Pennsylvania Government, in Braddock's camp. Franklin had been appealed to by Braddock to obtain horses and wagons from the wary Pennsylvania Dutch farmers, who wanted good money for their hire. And Franklin's reputation for business ability and probity was such that they provided the transport on his security. Both Franklin and Washington advised Braddock against such a cumbersome train, in venturing into the wilderness, on the expedition to Fort Duquesne, which the English officer thought would be so easy to capture. Colonel Washington, thanks to his training in Indian warfare, and fortunately for his country, escaped the massacre. The teamsters hired by Franklin cut their horses loose from the wagons in the Indian ambuscade, and most of the wagons never came back—whereupon suits were brought against Franklin for their loss. His doubts as to the outcome of Braddock's march were shown by his advice to Philadelphians who planned a fireworks exhibition in celebration of the expected victory; he persuaded them to wait till news came, and they thus avoided mortification.

Franklin and Washington came into direct touch again in 1775, after the former's return from England, when both agreed, in correspondence and public utterances, with John Adams and John Jay, that they would give all

they possessed to restore the relations with the Mother Country which existed before the passage of the Stamp Act.

They were together again during the Continental Congress, and Franklin's appreciation of Washington's military ability had much to do with the latter's selection as Commander of the forces besieging Boston. Franklin's service as Postmaster General of the Colonies had immense influence in uniting them in the cause of independence, for his vigorous measures for circulation of letters and newspapers, and of such inspiring pamphlets as Thomas Paine's "Common Sense," joined the minds of patriots everywhere along the seaboard. Washington's solid qualities were complemented by Franklin's habit of illustrating some great truth by grotesque and familiar similes, much after the fashion later of Abraham Lincoln. This was the reason why Franklin, though the foremost literary man of his time in the Colonies, was not called upon to write the great documents of the Revolution. A fear was felt by his colleagues that he might put a joke, for instance, in the Declaration of Independence. He did write a sort of burlesque Declaration, lampooning King George III, which was no doubt a useful bit of comic relief in those trying times. But it was never seriously considered by Congress; and the task of arraigning the British Government fell to the more sedate Jefferson.

Next we find Franklin as a member of a committee of Congress, conferring with Washington at Cambridge, and taking steps, through his office as Postmaster General, for the army's better maintenance by the remoter Colonies.

Franklin was linked with Washington, as well as with Adams and Hancock, in the mysterious letter thrown into Franklin's window at Passy, when he was in France as the Minister of the United States. It was signed by "Charles de Weissenstein," undoubtedly an emissary of King George, who offered to make these leading Americans peers. This would have been an elevation of the descendant of the Ecton blacksmiths to rank with the ancient Washingtons. But Poor Richard spurned it, holding the peerage to be a sort of "tar and feather honor," of foulness and folly.

The mutual appreciation between these two men was never better shown than in a letter Franklin wrote to Washington in 1780, from France, acknowledging a letter from the General, concerning Lafayette, who had returned home for a time. Eventual victory for the Americans seemed likely, for England was tiring of the long distance struggle, so Franklin implied in this letter:

> "Should peace arrive after another campaign or two, and afford us a little leisure, I should be happy to see your Excellency in Europe and to accompany you, if my age and strength would permit, in visiting some of its ancient and most famous kingdoms. You would, on this side of the sea, enjoy the great reputation you have acquir'd pure and free from those little shades that the jealousy and envy of a man's countrymen and cotemporaries are ever endeavouring to cast over living merit.
>
> "Here you would know and enjoy what posterity will say of Washington. For 1,000 leagues have nearly the same effect with 1,000 years. The feeble voice of those grovelling passions cannot extend so far either in time or distance. At present I enjoy that pleasure for you,

as I frequently hear the old generals of this martial country (who study the maps of America, and mark upon them all your operations), speak with sincere approbation and great applause of your conduct; and join in giving you the character of one of the greatest captains of the age.

"I must soon quit the scene; but you may live to see our country flourish, as it will amazingly and rapidly after the war is over. Like a field of young Indian corn, which long fair weather and sunshine had enfeebled and discoloured, and which in that weak state, by a thunder gust of violent wind, hail and rain, seem'd to be threaten'd with absolute destruction; yet the storm being past, it recovers fresh verdure, shoots up with double vigour and delights the eye, not of its owner only, but of every observing traveller."

A contact between Franklins and Washingtons, in lighter vein, appears in a letter from Franklin's daughter, Mrs. Bache, in reply to one from her father, in France, rebuking her mildly for an order for expensive French finery. She replies to her "dear papa," explaining that the silks and laces were required for her costume when she spent a day with General Washington and his lady, in Philadelphia.

A tale which Parton, the most copious biographer of Franklin regards as perhaps apocryphal, or, if the event really occurred, it was at the end of the third bottle or the opening of the fourth, is that of the toasts drunk, at a dinner with the English and French Ambassadors. Under the mellowing influences of the wine of the country, the British Ambassador gave: "England—the sun—whose bright beams enlighten and fructify the remotest corners of the earth." The French Ambassador, "glowing

with national pride, but too polite to dispute the Englishman," said: "France—the moon—whose mild, steady and cheering rays are the delight of all nations, consoling them in darkness." Doctor Franklin rose and said: "George Washington—the Joshua, who commanded the sun and the moon to stand still, and they obeyed him."

Later Franklin strongly supported Washington for the first President of the United States. In his will, he bequeathed, "my fine crabtree walking stick, with a gold head curiously wrought in the form of a cap of liberty, to my friend and the friend of mankind, George Washington."

In expressing sympathy to Franklin, Washington wrote from New York, September 23, 1789:

> "Would to God, my dear Sir, that I could congratulate you upon the removal of that excruciating pain, under which you labour, and that your existence might close with as much ease to yourself, as its continuance has been beneficial to our country and useful to mankind; or, if the united wishes of a free people, joined with the earnest prayers of every friend to science and humanity, could relieve the body from pains or infirmities; that you could claim an exemption on this score. But this cannot be, and you have within yourself the only resource to which we can confidently apply for relief, a philosophic mind."

In the same letter, Washington gave this just appraisal of the world's estimate of his old friend and companion in our country's struggle for independence:

> "If to be venerated for benevolence, if to be admired for talents, if to be esteemed for patriotism, if to be be-

loved for philanthropy, can gratify the human mind, you must have the pleasing consolation to know that you have not lived in vain."

Minds like those of Franklin and Washington display the heights to which the human spirit may attain, minds free from jealousy, intent only upon service to humanity. Among such great minds in our country's history there is an immortal kinship, which, one loves to think, they may now be sharing in some celestial sphere. Lincoln had this spirit, too, and he sought the inspiration of the great patriots who preceded him, in many crises. His farewell talk to the people of his home, Springfield, Illinois, when he departed to assume the Presidency, and the huge task of saving the Union, showed this feeling when he said: "I go to a greater task than was laid upon Washington." Those who made the Union and those who saved it are now joined, we hope, in a fraternity "beyond time and space" but in which they still have a loving care for the great country that Franklin and Washington, above all the great ones of the Revolution, helped to establish and launch upon a career of benevolence to humanity, the extent of which none of us living can see, but which we are sure will attain still greater heights of service to all mankind.

# Franklin and Agriculture

By William M. Jardine
*As Secretary of Agriculture*

Benjamin Franklin had a broad interest in the improvement of the arts and in the applications of science for this purpose. He definitely included agriculture in his program for improvements, and in various ways showed his interest in this subject.

His "Proposal for promoting useful knowledge among the British plantations in America" was published on May 14, 1743. This paper suggests that an organization, to be known as The American Philosophical Society, be formed with headquarters in Philadelphia, to collect and disseminate information on a great variety of scientific and practical subjects. Among the subjects listed by Franklin are the following: "All new-discovered plants, herbs, trees, roots—their virtues, uses, etc.; methods of propagating them and making such as are useful, but particular to some plantations, more general; new discoveries in chemistry; nature of the soil and productions of different regions; new methods of improving the breed of useful animals; introducing other sorts from foreign countries; new improvements in planting, gardening and clearing land."

This Society, which traces its descent from the Junto, founded by Franklin in 1727, published many articles on agricultural subjects. In the first volume of its transactions there is a section entitled "Essays on Agriculture," which includes seventeen papers.

In 1749 Franklin issued a pamphlet entitled, "Pro-

posal relating to the education of youth in Philadelphia." This contained a plan for an academy in which students might learn "those things that are likely to be most useful and most ornamental." In outlining the course of study he raised an important question: "While they are reading natural history might not a little gardening, planting, grafting and inoculating be taught and practiced; and now and then excursions made to the neighboring plantations of the best farmers, their methods observed and reasoned upon for the information of youth? The improvement in agriculture being useful to all, and skill in it no disparagement to any."

While Franklin was in England as the agent of Pennsylvania and some other Colonies before the Revolutionary War, he sent home silkworm eggs and mulberry cuttings to promote silk growing in this country. At this time he wrote several letters on silk culture. One of these, dated July 7, 1771, was to John Bartram, who had a botanic garden and nursery near Philadelphia, from which such men as George Washington and Thomas Jefferson were getting plants.

Franklin was evidently in close touch with the founders of the Philadelphia Society for Promoting Agriculture, including John B. Bordley, of Maryland, and Richard Peters, whose estate was in what is now Fairmount Park, Philadelphia. The minutes of that society show that Franklin was elected a member November 7, 1785.

About this time there was considerable interest in the use of gypsum or calcium sulphate as a fertilizer, and apparently Franklin used his influence in this direction. It is said he strewed this chemical, often called land plaster,

on a clover field so that when the crop had reached some size the words "This Has Been Plastered" stood out in luxuriant dark green plants against the rest of the field.

I suppose the most tangible evidence of Franklin's influence upon agriculture to present day farmers is the lightning rod with which their homes and barns are protected against damage by lightning. The most common cause of farm fires is lightning. Statistics show that the fire losses from lightning upon farm buildings protected by Franklin's lightning rods, when properly installed, are reduced practically to zero.

Franklin's great versatility and encyclopædic range of interests naturally caused him to devote much attention to agriculture. His correspondence over a period exceeding fifty years is filled with allusions to it, and his comments testify to his penetrating observations. At a time when the ox is becoming almost extinct as a farm animal in America, it is interesting to read the following observation which Franklin made to Lord Kames in a letter written in February, 1769: "I have observed in America, that the farmers are more thriving in those parts of the country where horned cattle are used than in those where the labour is done by horses. The latter are said to require twice the quantity of land to maintain them; and after all are not good to eat, at least we do not think them so. Here is a waste of land that might afford subsistence for so many of the human species."

Franklin's high opinion of the occupation of farming is indicated in his letter to Joshua Babcock of January 13, 1772, where he terms it "the most honourable of all employments, in my opinion, as being the most useful in it-

self, and rendering the man most independent." It was particularly upon their independence as contrasted with the servile condition of the agricultural laborers of Great Britain that Franklin was wont to congratulate the American farmers. He pointed out that the higher level of commerce and manufactures in the Mother Country was derived in part at the expense of agriculture. He states the situation in his forcible, characteristic way in the letter to Joshua Babcock above mentioned, which follows in part: "I have lately made a tour through Ireland and Scotland. In those countries, a small part of the society are landlords, great noblemen, and gentlemen, extremely opulent, living in the highest affluence and magnificence. The bulk of the people are tenants, extremely poor, living in the most sordid wretchedness, in dirty hovels of mud and straw, and clothed only in rags. I thought often of the happiness of New England, where every man is a freeholder, has a vote in public affairs, lives in a tidy, warm house, has plenty of good food and fuel, with whole clothes from head to foot, the manufacture, perhaps, of his own family. Long may they continue in this situation!"

Franklin was a frequent correspondent upon agriculture with the Rev. Jared Eliot, of Connecticut, whose "Essays on Field Husbandry" and other agricultural subjects were widely read at the time. The manufacture of potash, the drainage of swamps, the cultivation of hemp, the planting of hedges and many other subjects pertaining to farm practice are discussed in his correspondence with Jared Eliot. While Franklin poses more frequently as the inquirer and laments his "want of skill in

agriculture," his letters nevertheless show that he had a practical first-hand knowledge of farming. In one of these letters, written about 1747, he discussed his own farm improvement work in considerable detail:

> "About eighteen months ago, I made a purchase of about three hundred acres of land near Burlington, and resolved to improve it in the best and speediest manner, that I might be enabled to indulge myself in that kind of life, which was most agreeable. My fortune (thank God) is such that I can enjoy all the necessaries and many of the indulgencies of life; but I think that in duty to my children I ought so to manage, that the profits of my farm may ballance the loss my income will suffer by my retreat to it. In order to this, I began with a meadow, on which there had never been much timber, but it was always overflowed. The soil of it is very fine, and black about three foot; then it comes to a fatt bluish clay; of this deep meadow I have about eighty acres, forty of which had been ditched and mowed. The grass which comes in first after ditching is spear-grass and white clover; but the weeds are to be mowed four or five years before they will be subdued, as the vegetation is very luxuriant.
>
> "This meadow had been ditched and planted with Indian corn, of which it produced about sixty bushells per acre. I first scoured up my ditches and drains, and took off all the weeds; then I ploughed it, and sowed it with oats in the last of May. . . ."

This is only a small part of the letter, which was full of understanding discussion of crops and management, and shows Franklin could very well have claimed the distinction of being a "dirt farmer."

Franklin's "Observations on Mayz, or Indian Corn" in which he describes the various food products which can

be prepared from the grain and stalks of this aboriginal crop, likewise deserves mention in this connection. His long experience in political matters caused him to regard the problems of American agriculture from the broad viewpoint of national economics. The deep insight which he possessed in the field of agricultural economics is indicated by his famous essay "On the Price of Corn, and Management of the Poor," which under the pseudonym "Arator," was published before the Revolution during his residence in England. The views expressed by Franklin in this admirable paper are identical with those advanced nine years later by Adam Smith in his "Wealth of Nations."

Franklin's penetrating judgment upon economic matters was of the greatest value to the American Colonies in answering the arguments which were advanced by the British advocates of extreme coercion. Many of these arguments related to agricultural conditions in the Colonies. In a pre-Revolutionary pamphlet entitled "The True Constitutional Means for Putting an End to the Disputes between Great Britain and the American Colonies," the argument was made that returns of Colonial agriculture under the prospering conditions of a fertile soil and favorable climate greatly exceeded the profits of commercial traffic. In answer to this statement Franklin made the following reply: "How little this politician knows of agriculture! Is there any county where ten bushels of grain are generally got in for one sown? And are all the charges and advances for labour to be nothing? No farmer of America in fact makes five per cent of his money. His profit is only being paid for his own

labour, and that of his children. The opulence of one English or Dutch merchant would make the opulence of a hundred American farmers."

After the Revolution had been brought to a successful termination Franklin devoted every energy towards encouraging a public opinion that should be favorable to the development of agriculture. He felt that a sound system of agriculture afforded the only enduring basis for the future prosperity of the new nation. The significance and importance of agriculture in the early days of the republic is indicated by him in the following passage from his essay on "The Internal State of America": "The great business of the continent is agriculture. For one artisan, or merchant, I suppose, we have at least one hundred farmers, by far the greatest part cultivators of their own fertile lands, from whence many of them draw, not only the food necessary for their subsistence, but the materials of their clothing, so as to need very few foreign supplies; while they have a surplus of productions to dispose of, whereby wealth is gradually accumulated. Such has been the goodness of Divine Providence to these regions, and so favourable the climate, that, since the three or four years of hardship in the first settlement of our fathers here, a famine or scarcity has never been heard of amongst us; on the contrary, though some years may have been more, and others less plentiful, there has always been provision enough for ourselves, and a quantity to spare for exportation. And although the crops of last year were generally good, never was the farmer better paid for the part he can spare commerce, as the published price-currents abundantly testify. The lands he possesses are

also continually rising in value with the increase of population; and, on the whole, he is enabled to give such good wages to those who work for him, that all who are acquainted with the old world must agree, that in no part of it are the labouring poor so generally well fed, well clothed, well lodged, and well paid, as in the United States of America."

# Franklin, the Philosopher of Health

*U. S. Public Health Service*

By H. S. Cumming
*Surgeon General*

One cannot read the volumes of Writings of Benjamin Franklin and reflect upon his extraordinary life without being amazed at the diversity of his activities, his studies, and his discourses, and at the sound opinions he expressed on the multifarious subjects of human interest—in short, at his almost universal knowledge. He seems to have neglected no field; for him every phase of human activity was worthy of consideration. The success he achieved in any one of many fields would have been sufficient to endow him with glory and gain for him the acclaim of his contemporaries and the homage of posterity. Let us consider specifically some of his contributions to knowledge and human welfare which have a direct bearing on the subject of health.

It is difficult for the average person today, living under modern conditions of heating, lighting and ventilation of buildings, to realize the discomfort, to say nothing of the unhealthfulness, of the old-fashioned fireplace of Colonial days, the purpose of which was not so much to warm the rooms as to provide a place in which to make a fire in order that people might warm themselves when cold. The seats in each corner were usually too hot for comfort, and persons in front of the fire baked and froze on opposite exposures. Nor was this the only difficulty of the

old-time fireplaces. Many of them had smoky chimneys. Franklin set about to correct these conditions, and the Franklin stove or the "Pennsylvania Fireplace" was the result. The Dutch or German stove could have been adopted, but Franklin was wise enough to perceive that, among other objections, it supplied little or no fresh air to the room, and so he devoted his efforts to combining the advantages and eliminating the defects of the two systems of heating. The Franklin stove provided to a fair degree an equitable temperature to the entire room, secured proper ventilation, obviated the necessity for persons to crowd closely together around the fireplace, and permitted people to sit with comfort near the windows, thus giving them the benefit of better light.

The hospital, now such a necessity in urban districts, and an institution which has become of as much importance in the maintenance of health among well persons living in a crowded community as it is in the relief and comfort of the sick, was first introduced into America through the efforts and support of Benjamin Franklin. Dr. Thomas Bond, one of the many friends of Franklin in the profession of medicine, had conceived the idea of establishing the hospital, and had attempted to secure funds for that purpose; but, finding his efforts meeting with small success, he came to Franklin, who, by inducing private subscriptions and securing financial assistance from the Assembly, raised sufficient funds for the successful culmination of the pioneer project, and the cornerstone of the Pennsylvania Hospital was laid on May 28, 1755.

Franklin was in advance of his generation in many

ways in the treatment of disease and in personal hygiene. He knew the value of sudorifics in fevers and of drinking plenty of water, although the common practice of his time and for many years afterwards was the entire denial of water to fever patients. And not only did he approve of the internal use of water, but of the external use as well. He was a skillful swimmer and advocated swimming as an exercise, holding it to be one of the most healthful and agreeable of exercises. For those who did not know how to swim, he advocated warm baths, which, "by cleansing and purifying the skin," he found very salutary.

FRANKLIN TAKES A "SLIPPER BATH"

As he was in advance of his time in the use of water, he also led the way in preaching the doctrine of fresh air, and wrote at length to show the value of fresh air both in health and in sickness. As a health measure, he advocated a constant supply of fresh air in the bed chamber.

Franklin deplored the custom of many London families, who "took the air" by going out in a coach with the doors and windows tightly closed, "breathing over and

over again the same air which they had brought with them out of town." He taught that one hour's walking was worth four hours' horseback riding and more than equal to "lolling in a carriage all day."

As he was modern in his hygiene of exercise, fresh air, and water, he was also modern in his advice regarding diet and health, and the proverbs of Poor Richard contain many dietary apothems such as "To lengthen thy life, lessen thy meals"; "Dine with little, sup with less; do better still, sleep supperless"; "Eat few suppers and you'll need few medicines." His constant warning was that greater danger lay in overeating than in undereating. And to estimate fairly the influence of these early "health hints," it must be remembered that in Franklin's time the "Almanack" was probably the most widely read of all publications. With the exception of the Bible, it provided the only reading matter for many families.

Modern health practice is based on the application of known sanitary and prophylactic measures in the prevention of disease. For many communicable diseases the specific cause has been determined, and specific methods have been evolved for prevention and treatment. For many other diseases the causative organism has not yet been determined, but other facts regarding communicability and methods of control have been learned. In any case, the modern health officer applies the known methods of control. It is especially interesting to note, in view of the anomalous position of the modern antivaccinationist, the attitude of Franklin toward inoculation—the only effective method of preventive treatment against smallpox at that time—and to observe with what logic and statistical

proof he supported his advocacy of the practice of inoculation, showing that it made a marked impression on the fatality rate of the disease. In a letter dated February, 1759, and used as a preface to an article by Doctor Heberden, of London, reporting on the success of inoculation and giving "plain instructions" on the technique, Franklin gives a most interesting account of the method and the success of inoculation as practiced in America. Using the statistical data of an epidemic of smallpox in Boston about 1753 or 1754, he showed that of persons not inoculated who contracted smallpox, 8 per cent of the white persons and nearly 13 per cent of the colored died, whereas of those inoculated, 1 per cent of the white and 5 per cent of the colored persons died. These rates were based on nearly 8,000 cases. In Philadelphia, in over 800 recorded inoculations, only four deaths occurred, the poorer showing in Boston being attributed to various causes incident to the existence of emergency conditions and to the fact that Boston had been free from smallpox for a good many years, while since 1730 the disease had "gone through" Philadelphia about once in every four or five years, "so that the greatest number of subjects for inoculation must be under that age." Franklin cited other statistics showing the value of inoculation, and says, in a manner interestingly suggestive of present conditions, that "notwithstanding the now uncontroverted success of inoculation, it does not seem to make that progress among the common people in America which was at first expected." Franklin distributed the pamphlet containing the account of the success of inoculation and "plain instructions" regarding the method, prepared by Doctor

Heberden, in which the former states, in the introduction, "surely parents will no longer refuse to accept and thankfully use a discovery God in his mercy has been pleased to bless mankind with; whereby some check may be put to the ravages that cruel disease has been accustomed to make, and the human species be again suffered to increase as it did before smallpox made its appearance." Franklin lost a son by smallpox, and he bitterly regretted that he had not had him inoculated. Inoculation had been deferred only because of a long illness of the son. This he explained in an article published in his own newspaper, the "Pennsylvania Gazette," in which he denied the report that his son's death had resulted from inoculation, which he held "was a safe and beneficial practice."

The common cold is the most prevalent illness in the United States today. It probably causes a greater amount of absenteeism among school children and industrial workers than any other single pathological condition; and so far it has baffled the investigators who have sought to discover the cause of the affection and methods for its prevention. The Public Health Service has made studies on the epidemiology and prevention of colds, and has published pamphlets setting forth the present state of knowledge regarding the best preventive methods; but the cause is not yet entirely understood. Many of the accepted modern precautionary measures against colds were advocated by Benjamin Franklin, who had evidently intended publishing a paper on the subject. It is to be regretted that he never wrote the paper; but he left a long list of notes headed, "Preparatory Notes and Hints for Writing a Paper Concerning what is Called Catching Cold." These

notes give a very clear idea of what his paper would have contained. They defined a cold and dealt with the cause, treatment and prevention. His article would evidently have been a close approach to a pamphlet that might have been issued by a public health official. Among the notes are the following:

> "*How contracted*—By overeating; by constipation; by coming in close contact with a person having a cold."
>
> "*How treated*—Warming; exercise; perspiration; quinine taken early."
>
> "*How prevented*—Temperate eating and drinking; warm clothing in winter; proper elimination; free sweating; avoiding contact with infected persons."

Franklin noted that colds were apparently found only among civilized nations, and he stated that "the greater care we take to prevent catching cold, by the various contrivances of modern luxury, the more we become subject to it."

Another important subject from the standpoint of public health with which Franklin concerned himself, and on which he made an important contribution to the knowledge and literature of his time, was lead poisoning; and his letters on this subject are classics in medical literature. Dr. John Hunter founded his essay on the "Dry Belly-ache of the Tropics" upon Franklin's letters, and freely gave Franklin credit for the suggestions. One of Franklin's letters on the subject gives his opinion that a certain colic, or poisoning, among drinkers was due entirely to the use of lead worms in distilling, and, commenting on the subject of lead poisoning in certain industries, he states, with his characteristic accuracy in observation and

deduction, "I have long been of the opinion that that distemper proceeds always from a metallic cause only; observing that it affects, among tradesmen, those that use lead, however different their trades—as glaziers, letter founders, plumbers, pollers, white-lead makers, painters, . . . and, although the worms of stills ought to be of pure tin, they are often made of pewter, which has a great mixture in it of lead."

Another letter on lead poisoning is probably more important from the standpoint of public health than the one already mentioned, for it contains some excellent precautionary suggestions regarding prevention. This letter, as Dr. William Pepper states, "could aptly find a place in any modern text-book on the subject." In it Franklin again reveals the careful investigator, in discussing the causes of lead poisoning among typesetters and typefounders, as being due to the "particles of the metal swallowed with their Food by slovenly workmen, who went to their Meals after handling the Metal, without well washing their fingers, so that some of the metalline Particles were taken off by their Bread and eaten with it." He also considered the possibility of lead poisoning being produced by the vapors coming from the metal furnaces.

An important field of modern medicine and public health is the suppression of health frauds and quackery, by which many persons, if not positively and immediately harmed by the quackery, often suffer harmful results in the end, being led by their credulity away from an early accurate diagnosis of their condition and deprived of timely and proper treatment. Even this important field, which is closely related to health, was not outside the

realm of Franklin's multifarious activities. Although a foreigner in France, Franklin was appointed on the commission to investigate the claims of Mesmer, who, in his practice of "animal magnetism" was deluding thousands of dupes and relieving them of thousands of dollars. With a flair for accurate observation and a mind that could not easily be deceived by tricks and frauds, Franklin was probably the best qualified member of the commission to reveal the fraud and deception that was being practiced by Mesmer, and it was Franklin who was largely instrumental in the exposé. He drew up the report. The investigation was conducted fairly and in a thorough manner, and in such a way as was best suited to determine the merit or discover the quackery of the practice. The report is still worth reading, and every student of the various forms of mental therapeutics should read it. The following comment by Franklin regarding the report, especially that dealing with the fallow ground of quackery, which seems never to become infertile, can be as much appreciated today as it was then: "Some think it will put an end to Mesmerism. But there is a wonderful deal of Credulity in the World, and deceptions as absurd have supported themselves for Ages."

Franklin was also much concerned about the care of infants, and especially deplored the practice of French mothers in sending their babies to the Foundling Hospital to be cared for. He noted the high infant mortality rate among those infants early taken away from their mothers, and sanctioned a plan whereby mothers, through financial assistance, would be able to nurse their own babies.

In many other fields than those mentioned did Franklin's activities touch more or less on and contribute more or less directly to the subject of health. His reputation regarding fresh air and ventilation was such that he was consulted and gave advice in regard to the ventilation of hospitals. His tenets regarding fresh air, rest and proper diet occupy an important place in the modern treatment of disease, especially tuberculosis. While perhaps not such a direct contribution to the World's health as to its comfort and convenience, his invention of bifocal lenses, or "double spectacles," as Franklin called them, entitles him to a high rank among ophthalmologists.

It is not strange, after all, that so many of Franklin's activities concerned human welfare, nor that such a great number had a more or less direct bearing on health, for probably no man was ever moved by greater humanitarianism. And in any review of his versatile activities in so many unrelated fields in which his influence has affected the lives and habits of his own generation and of posterity, it should not be overlooked that Franklin's contributions to individual and public hygiene might justly entitle him to be known as the Philosopher of Health.

# Franklin, Our Patron Saint

*American Society of Heating and Ventilating Engineers*

By F. Paul Anderson

*President*

*Dean of Engineering in the University of Kentucky*

On June 25, 1927, at White Sulphur Springs West Virginia, Benjamin Franklin was officially proclaimed the Patron Saint of the American Society of Heating and Ventilating Engineers, a canonization in which they are proud to join with electrical and other engineers, and men in all sorts of trades and services of use, enlightenment and joy to humanity, from printers and postmen to workers in the music industries.

Franklin's clear observation of natural principles, and his simple, direct application of them, profound as it was practical, to human needs, is in no field of human service better shown than in the branch of engineering devoted to heating and ventilating. Indeed, the only one of his many inventions that bears his name is the Franklin stove. A London ironmonger, whose name is not stated by the historians, stole the idea, and made a small fortune out of it, but Franklin has the fame of it, a glowing glory in the homes of generation after generation that forms perhaps his most fitting monument of the many he left to posterity as reminders of him and his achievements.

Benjamin Franklin had, in the fullest sense of the term, an elemental mind. His tutelary deities were the spirits of the four elements of the old physicists, earth, air, fire, water—matters so common and all-pervading

Courtesy U. S. Patent Office

FRANKLIN WORKING ON THE MODELS OF HIS FAMOUS STOVE

that they were taken for granted by the average man as incapable of analysis with a view to the discovery of their essential principles and the application of these to industry.

Under guidance of his Gnome, the spirit of earth, Franklin became a geologist. Digging under the calcareous rock of Derbyshire, and finding oyster shells there, he came to the sound conclusion that England had suffered in prehistoric times many a sea-change, a "bouleversement" he called it, of the surface of the island, "some part of it having been depressed under the sea, and other parts, which had been under it being raised above it."

Thence he went on to discuss the character of the core of the globe, the materials of which he conjectured, as do our modern scientists, to be, through pressure, denser than any of the solids we are acquainted with, and which, if the pressure gave way, would expand into liquids and gases of tremendous explosive force, as in the case of earthquakes and volcanoes.

The "permanent magnetism" of the earth he postulated from his own observations as well as those of others. Unlike most of the scientists of his day, while assuming a certain kinship of magnetic with electrical force, he did not confound the two, but, on the contrary, showed radical differences in their actions, and inferentially in their natures. He clearly realized the law of the "conservation of energy," and the fact of its interchange in the various forms in which it was expressed. "Water and air," he concludes from experiments in the decomposition of wood and stone, "were ingredients of their original composition;

for men cannot make new matter of any kind." In this connection he stated that light and heat are converted and not created.

The spirit of water, the Nymph, went with him over-sea. He thought out many improvements in ship construction. And, getting from sea-captains the data about the Gulf Stream, he caused a map of it to be published for the benefit of navigators, showing how they could take advantage of its current in eastward voyages and avoid it in westward ones. He studied the properties of water, and showed how waves arise from cumulative strokes of the far less ponderable air, and therefore why "oil poured on the waters," while effective in the beginning of a storm, in preventing the wind from getting its initial grip on the water, is of little use when the great rollers have been formed.

But the Sylph of the air and the Salamander of fire joined their inspiration with one another in a marriage bond closer than was the interrelation of the other elements.

This union was proclaimed in the invention of the Franklin stove. We are mindful of a scientific but still somewhat poetic epithalamium about it from the resolution of the American Society of Heating and Ventilating Engineers that made Benjamin Franklin their Patron Saint.

The heating and ventilating engineer owes his present interest in rational heating and ventilating to the understanding shown by Franklin when he took the old-fashioned fireplace in the wall and brought it out into the room and produced an economical ventilating stove. This

was the first heating device to be made of iron. Men sixty years old can remember the almost universal use in this country of the commercial device known as the Franklin stove. Many varieties of the stove still remain, and its essential principles are used in all its successors.

Franklin's announcements in reference to night air have for a long time dominated the trend of study in the field of ventilation. The cave man, the Eskimo in his igloo, the pioneer in the log cabin, and in fact almost every man and woman before Franklin's day, closed as tightly as possible all openings to keep out that demon, the night air, so that he would not snatch away their unconscious souls to perhaps a still more mephitic abiding place.

Franklin proclaimed that man's natural breathing element was the air from out of doors; that air at night was as beneficial as that of the day; that human beings poisoned the atmosphere in exhalation; that this vitiated air could be removed only by diluting it with the atmosphere of the broad out of doors. In the course of time (for even the most rational improvement in living is slow of acceptance) Franklin changed the crack-stuffed cottage into one pervaded by the outside air, through openings and mechanisms forcing or inducing the flow, and then he added a heat-producing device in the form of a stove to raise the temperature of this large volume of cool, clean, invigorating air. Of all the elaborate systems we have at the present time involving heating, moving and humidifying air, it is a pleasure to record that every single one goes back to the first principles so fearlessly, poetically and logically proclaimed by Benjamin Franklin, the great

Yankee ambassador from Nature's own court, sent to this planet for the express purpose of bringing to its inhabitants the comforts which are the rightful heritage of humanity.

This great coterie of workers in the field of heating and ventilating do loyally proclaim that Benjamin Franklin is their Patron Saint and inspiration for worthy triumphs to the last syllable of recorded time.

# Franklin, the Laboring Man and Business Man

By James J. Davis
*Secretary of Labor*

It seems to me that the fame of Benjamin Franklin is so secure, and knowledge of his great services to this country and humanity is so widespread, that little can be said at this date that will add to either. It is rather for us in this day to copy as we can his great example, and make his immortal precepts and rules of life our own.

To the American working man Franklin remains today, and will ever remain, the outstanding example and inspiration. Like all working men who came before him, and like all who come after him, Franklin showed that with industry and full employment of one's native ability, no poverty can be dire enough to keep any man from rising to the highest peaks of usefulness.

It may be that few men can ever be as eminent as Benjamin Franklin, for his genius was alone of its kind. But to some eminence any man can rise, and to usefulness all men may aspire. Franklin has forever shown them the way to attain it.

It is fortunate that in addition to being a hard-working man, Franklin was also a writer. We have not only the model he left in the very acts of his life, but he wrote as industriously as he worked, and has left behind him the greatest lessons on thrift, industry and application that have ever been written. The man who would be successful may not only copy the life of Franklin, but may read

every day of his own life the exact rules that Franklin laid down for his own guidance.

The first example Franklin set to all working men was his own willingness to do, and do well, any work that fell to his hand, however humble it was. Far-sighted as he was, his eyes were never too far in the future to overlook the task of today. It was by perfect performance of the daily task that he moved steadily on to greater tasks, one after the other. This is invariably the rule of success, in any line of endeavor, and I commend it to every worker in America. Every man in the country with a spark of ambition in his soul should think every day of his life of that cardinal principle of Benjamin Franklin.

Another habit of Franklin will bear thinking of every day. While he worked he thought and planned for the future. When the next task, the larger opportunity, appeared before him, he was prepared and ready to seize it and do it—do it as well as he had the last one.

Still another example Franklin has left every one of us. He was not forever thinking of work; he cultivated his mind for its own sake and to enlarge his enjoyment of life. He read with an eager appetite for learning of every sort. Every worker should do that also, so that he may not only work well but live well. Every one of us should be agreeable company to himself and to others, and Franklin was that.

Good humor was yet another of Franklin's virtues, and that also I commend to every worker. The man who prospers in life is the man of good will, the man willing to play his part among men, willing to recognize the individuality of others and to adapt his own to it. Progress

is faster and sweeter if we work together in harmony and partnership, and there again Franklin has left an immortal example. In all the great debates in the shaping of the American Constitution you will find Benjamin Franklin the great harmonizer of conflicting views. He himself dwelt at peace with all men, and he ever helped others to do the same.

Like every ambitious American worker who has come after him, Franklin had a desire to rise above the rank of employee and go into business for himself. He was able to do so because by his thrift he saved the necessary capital. In that he again showed the way. The way to accumulate capital is by saving. Once Franklin had the means to enter business, he practiced business on principles that remain the standard to this day. That is, he ever turned out an honest product. He delivered his goods on time. He faithfully paid his bills. He never undertook liabilities that he could not meet. He never overreached. He never speculated. He was content with a slow but sure and steady advance. Thus every day he built himself a sure foundation for the venture of the morrow, and the success of that venture was assured by the careful preparations he had made.

From success in business, he thus passed to success in handling affairs in general. His country made him its diplomat to foreign lands, and he applied to these duties the same business sense and kindly good nature that he had practiced in his humbler stations. In a word, for whatever he undertook he was always thoroughly prepared by earnest attention to the preceding task. He simply grew, as any man can grow by following Franklin's example.

I am simply calling back to mind these points that Franklin himself has left in enduring form in his writings. But in his writing he was as careful to learn as he was in everything else he undertook to do. Because he wrote well, his works are of constant and fascinating interest. It is not only a profit, but a pleasure to read them. And because they are both, I commend to every worker in America a frequent reading of Franklin's works. He himself has left in detail the story of his life. I wish every American worker, every American in general, would make it a point to read Franklin's "Autobiography" at least once every year.

# Labor's Patron Saint

*American Federation of Labor*

By William Green

*President*

The officers and members of the American Federation of Labor hold Benjamin Franklin in high esteem as a philosopher, a patriot and a great American. We shall always remain loyal to the sort of Americanism that he proclaimed, and we shall always be happy to count him as our Patron Saint. It is eminently fitting that Labor should do this, because as a worker, as a genius, as a printer, Ben Franklin belonged to Labor. He began to work with his hands at an early age. Later on he showed the extraordinary ability which he possessed, and exercised it in many ways. He was a printer; and the printers' organization affiliated with the American Federation of Labor is happy to claim him as their Patron Saint. But he was more than that. He not only belongs to the printers but he belongs to Labor.

It is not my purpose to refer to his many deeds. We all know what they were—his service to his country, his service to mankind, his service to the world. He was truly a leader in the struggle of the American people for the enjoyment of freedom and of democracy.

The men of Labor and the women of Labor believe in the sort of Americanism that Franklin represented and that Franklin preached. I am glad to pay our tribute of respect to his character and to his memory. We shall always remain loyal to those things that he advocated, those principles that he announced and preached.

# Franklin, the Religious Man

*Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America*

By Rev. S. Parkes Cadman
*As President*

*and*

Rev. Samuel McCrea Cavert
*General Secretary*

Doubtless the first impression of many a reader is that the title of this chapter should be followed by an interrogation point. Such, indeed, was the attitude of the writers themselves for many years. Thanks to a too little known book, James Madison Stifler's "The Religion of Benjamin Franklin," that hazy misconception has been cleared away. No one can read this volume, to which the following pages are deeply indebted, without feeling that Franklin was a better exponent of spiritual things than some of his contemporaries who were prominently identified with the Church.

That Franklin was not very religious in the conventional ways must be readily admitted. Like Abraham Lincoln, he made no formal commitment to any religious organization and was no ardent adherent of any church. With much of the current religious thought and practice he found himself out of sympathy. All that is undeniable. Yet it will be helpful to a right perspective to remind ourselves that dissatisfaction with current views has been characteristic of many of the greatest religious leaders of history.

To suppose that Franklin was anti-religious or even

indifferent would, in any case, be an egregious error. He contributed regularly to the church and responded to many appeals for gifts to various religious enterprises. He attended public worship with considerable frequency, declining to do so when he found the sermons too dogmatic, obscurantist or dull. As to his reason for quitting the preaching of one church he has left us a record, which sheds no little light on his religious attitudes. The minister took as his point of departure Paul's great saying, "Whatsoever things are true, honest, just, pure, lovely or of good report, if there be any virtue or any praise, think on these things." "And I imagined," comments Franklin, "in a sermon on such a text, we could not miss of having some morality." But the discourse emphasized only the "morality" of keeping the Sabbath day, reading the Scriptures, going to church, partaking of the sacrament, and paying due respect to the ministry!

The questioning and exploring mind which Franklin showed in relation to an immense range of human interests and which would not allow him to accept anything on the authority of any tradition, however venerable, early revealed itself in his thinking about religion. At sixteen years of age he referred to himself as a "staunch doubter." At nineteen or thereabouts he published a pamphlet exposing the errors of Christian tenets as he understood them. But so dissatisfied was he with his own arguments that he soon burned the whole edition of the pamphlet, so far as he could lay hold of it, except for a single copy.

Shortly thereafter, we find him writing in a very different vein, this time issuing a pamphlet defending the

validity of prayer. At the age of twenty-two he had composed a litany for his own use, included in which were petitions such as these:

> "That I may be preserved from atheism and infidelity, impiety and profaneness, and, in my addresses to Thee, carefully avoid irreverence and ostentation, formality and odious hypocrisy—Help me, O Father!
>
> "That I may to those above me be dutiful, humble and submissive; avoiding pride, disrespect, and contumacy—Help me, O Father!
>
> "That I may to those below me be gracious, condescending, and forgiving, using clemency, protecting *innocent distress,* avoiding cruelty, harshness, and oppression, insolence, and unreasonable severity—Help me, O Father!"

And this from a man often thought of as having no religious interest!

To depict the positive content of the faith at which Franklin arrived, as a result of his own thinking and experience, is not difficult. Clearly reflected in his writings, especially in his delightful letters, five great essentials of the life of the spirit stand revealed.

1. *The basic element of his religious faith was the conviction of a Divine Providence concerned with all human affairs.* To this faith he bore witness again and again and on one historic occasion gave classic expression of it. At the Constitutional Convention, in moving that the sessions be opened with prayer, he declared:

> "The longer I live, the more convincing proofs I see of this truth, *that God governs in the affairs of men.* And if a sparrow cannot fall to the ground without His notice, is it probable that an empire can rise without His aid? We have been assured, Sir, in the Sacred Writings, that

'except the Lord build the house, they labour in vain that build it!' I firmly believe this; and I also believe, that, without His concurring aid, we shall succeed in this political building no better than the builders of Babel."

That between such a faith, on the one hand, and his serene and equable disposition on the other, there was a hidden connection, is not difficult to believe. To Franklin the world in which he lived was not a meaningless hodge-podge; it was God's world, the scene in which a great purpose of good was to be achieved. And with this faith went a belief in the value of prayer. A reverent and grateful attitude toward God as the Creator and Father of mankind seemed to him highly important. But for the mechanical, even magical, views of prayer held by many he had scant regard. He could direct sharp raillery against them, as he did in a rather devastating way in a letter to his brother John, who had told of a day of prayer for the capture of Fort Breton during one of the Colonial Wars. In none too gentle satire, Franklin wrote:

"You have a fast and prayer day for that purpose, in which I compute five hundred thousand petitions were offered up to the same effect in New England, which added to the petitions of every family morning and evening, multiplied by the number of days since January 25th, makes forty-five millions of prayers; which, set against the prayers of a few priests in the garrison, to the Virgin Mary, give a vast balance in your favour."

2. A second cardinal element in Franklin's religion was *his conviction that all faith must be tested by its fruits in life*. The truest service of God, he always insisted, was service to God's children. Religious ceremony and orthodoxy of doctrine had value for him only as they mani-

fested themselves in right conduct. In this he was in agreement with the prophet Micah's great question, "What doth the Lord require of thee but to love mercy, to do justice and to walk humbly with thy God?" He agreed with the apostle James also that "faith without works is dead." Indeed, he could appeal to still higher authority, as he did, for example, when he wrote to a friend:

> "Your great Master thought much less of these outward appearances and professions than many of his modern disciples. He preferred the *doers* of the Word to the mere *hearers;* the son that seemingly refused to obey his father, and yet performed his commands, to him that professed his readiness, but neglected the work; the heretical but charitable Samaritan, to the uncharitable though orthodox priest and sanctified Levite."

In similar vein he wrote to his father, who seemed to be troubled about some of Benjamin's views on religious subjects:

> "My mother grieves that one of her sons is an Arian, another an Arminian. What an Arminian or an Arian is, I cannot say that I very well know. The truth is, I make such distinctions very little my study. I think vital religion has always suffered when orthodoxy is more regarded than virtue; and the Scriptures assure me, that at the last day we shall not be examined for what we *thought,* but what we *did;* and our recommendation will not be, that we said, Lord! Lord! but that we did good to our fellow creatures. See Matt. XXV."

3. A third characteristic of Franklin's attitude was *a broad tolerance of other forms of religious experience than his own and a kindly sympathy with all religious seeking*. He had no patience with the sectarian spirit. The

best illustration of his feeling on this subject is found in his famous "fifty-first chapter of Genesis." There is, of course, no such thing in the Bible. Franklin, however, composed (or at least frequently quoted) what he called a "fifty-first" chapter, written in the style of Genesis, picturing Abraham as rebuked by God for his impatient intolerance toward those who did not worship as he did. When one recalls how much narrowness and dogmatism there was in church circles in Franklin's day, one cannot help feeling that in this respect, as in many others, Franklin was far ahead of his times.

4. In still another way, Franklin was prophetic of the larger view that was ultimately to win its way in the churches, viz, in *his vision of the practical meaning of religion for our social life*. This found expression especially in his devotion to the cause of peace among the nations. Surely he had, above most of those of his age, the blessing which Jesus promised to the peace-makers as children of God. Franklin's famous letter to Bishop Shipley that "there has never been, nor ever will be, any such thing as a *good* war or a *bad* peace" was more than an emotional outburst. He put forth a proposal for a "family compact" between the United States, England and France in the interest of permanent peace. And—a fact which is especially pertinent to our present discussion—he concluded it by an appeal to the Christian profession made by the three countries. "You are all Christians," he said, and to clinch his argument he quoted the words of Jesus, "By this shall all men know that ye are my disciples, if ye love one another."

5. Finally, Franklin *believed in life after death*. His

faith that there is a Divine Providence behind all human affairs embraced the life beyond as well as that which now is. This faith he manifested in one of his letters to the evangelist, George Whitefield, in words of deep spiritual insight:

> "That Being who gave me existence and through almost three score years has been showering his favours upon me, whose very chastisements have been blessings to me; can I doubt that he loves me? And if he loves me, can I doubt that he will go on to take care of me, not only here but hereafter? This in some may seem presumption; to me it appears the best grounded hope; hope of the future built on experience of the past."

The well-known epitaph which Franklin wrote for himself in 1728 discloses the same hope of immortality:

"The Body of
B. Franklin, Printer,
(Like the Cover of an old Book,
Its Contents torn out
And stript of its Lettering and Gilding)
Lies here, Food for Worms.
But the Work shall not be wholly lost;
For it will, (as he believ'd) appear once more,
In a new and more perfect Edition,
Corrected and amended
By the Author."

From a little-known draft of the epitaph, privately owned.—EDITOR.

Would it not be an appropriate thing if these lines, which are so expressive of his faith, but which have never been placed on his tomb, might, even at this late date, be inscribed on some stone close by the final resting-place of his body?

# Franklin, the Philanthropist

*Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching*

By Henry S. Pritchett
*President*

Franklin was so versatile a genius that to describe him in his full relations to the world during his busy and fruitful lifetime would require a volume. Besides his notable achievements in many fields of activity Franklin had a charming personality, a delightful faculty of conversation, and a clarity of expression that caused the French to say that he had a French mind, the highest form of compliment they could pay a foreigner.

Franklin had ever a love for his fellow man and a sincere desire to serve him. This purpose took the form, in his early life, of urging upon his countrymen the virtues of thrift and hard work. Having begun life himself as a poor boy and acquired what was for that day a competent fortune, he desired that his countrymen should achieve the same success and he believed that the road to this success lay in frugality, in simple living, and in hard work. For the greater part of his life this was the theme upon which he constantly dwelt.

His position as an author and publisher enabled him to drive home this lesson as perhaps no other has ever done. Poor Richard became a popular character, even though his advice was not always welcome. Through his position as publisher, he served also the cause of the Colonies and fought the economic vagaries of that day. A disciple of Adam Smith, he believed in free trade and printed

the first serious argument against paper currency. The first novel published in the Colonies was Franklin's reprint of "Pamela." Even when serving as Ambassador in France, he had a little printing press in his house with which he was able to send delightful communications to those whom he wanted to reach. No man, perhaps, has ever lived who so used the position of a printer and publisher to drive home to the consciousness of his countrymen the wholesome lessons of economy and of personal rectitude in business. And this is, perhaps, the most fruitful form of philanthropy.

The last years of his life were calm and serene. It was in these years that his fruitful mind turned to the problem of using the fortune he had acquired for the encouragement and betterment of other generations. He was the first American to embark upon the experiment of the large philanthropic trust, and he executed his design in a most original and interesting fashion. The story of this philanthropic venture can be briefly told.

Having been bred himself to a manual art, and believing that good apprentices among artisans were the most likely to make good citizens, and desiring also to make his money useful after his death, he established two trusts of one thousand pounds each—the one in Boston, the city in which he was born, and the other in Philadelphia, the city in which his life was spent.

The conditions of the two trusts were identical, their conduct being entrusted to boards of trustees. Each board was to lend from the fund to young artisans in the trades, but under very strict conditions. Loans were to be at five per cent and they were to be made only to artisans who

were married and under the age of twenty-five years, and who had served their apprenticeship in one or the other of these states. Furthermore, in order to obtain the loan the workman must present a certificate of good moral character from two citizens, and must secure two sureties for the repayment of the loan.

In this somewhat complicated device many of the most attractive qualities of Franklin were presented. He counted that his money would be made available only to deserving people, but he also provided a fair rate of interest and chose a method by which, if the plan worked, the accumulations would rapidly increase the amount of the original gift. So sure was Franklin of the working of his scheme that he projected the plan into the far distant future. He counted that, if his thousand pounds were duly loaned in the way provided and to good security, at the end of a hundred years they would be grown to 131,000 pounds, about $650,000. He anticipated the formation of a philanthropic trust far beyond anything conceived of in his day. Of the 131,000 pounds, he directed that 100,000 pounds should, in each of the two cities, be laid out in some public work which should be of general utility to the inhabitants. He indicated his notion of what these public works might be, naming fortifications, bridges, aqueducts, public buildings, baths, pavements, or "whatever may make living in the town more convenient to its people and render it more agreeable to strangers resorting thither for health or a temporary residence." Franklin's conception of what was to be done with his money ran along strictly practical lines.

He directed that the remaining 31,000 pounds that

would, under his assumption, have been accumulated in the fund at the end of a hundred years should be loaned in the same manner to artisans for another hundred years, by which time he hoped that it would have been found that the "institution has had a good effect on the conduct of youth and been of service to many worthy characters and useful citizens."

At the end of this second term, Franklin anticipated that the sum in the hands of the trustees in each city would amount to 4,600,000 pounds, sterling, which he proposed to have the trustees divide between the City of Philadelphia and the State of Pennsylvania, in the one case, and the City of Boston and the State of Massachusetts, in the other, in the proportion that the inhabitants of the two cities should receive 1,000,000 pounds each and that 3,000,000 should be at the disposition of the governments of the respective states. "I do not presume," he wrote, "to carry my views further than the end of the second century."

The story of these two philanthropic benefactions is most illuminating, because it not only illustrates the difficulties in the administration of permanent trusts, but also makes clear how the economic and social changes in so long a period can completely alter the conditions of a gift. Shrewd and ingenious as Franklin was, he went far astray in assuming that he could anticipate the economic life of a growing country for a period of two centuries. He died in 1790. In July, 1891, the first century of his trusts had been completed. In the hands of the Boston trustees, instead of the $650,000 anticipated, there was $391,000; while in the hands of the Philadelphia trus-

tees there was approximately $90,000. Both of Franklin's foundations had been managed with scrupulous care, but the plan which he so carefully worked out was impracticable. He hedged his plan about with such sharp conditions that, after a few years, the money could no longer be placed and in the end both cities were obliged to have recourse to the courts in order to invest the money in ordinary financial channels. The difference between the accumulations in Philadelphia and in Boston was largely due to the fact that the Philadelphia trustees continued for a longer period to seek mechanics who were willing to make use of the money accumulated under the fund on the conditions laid down by Franklin. In this effort a less rigid scrutiny of borrowers resulted in the loss of a considerable sum.

Many years elapsed after the end of the first century of the life of these trusts before the money was finally available. By that time the Boston Fund had amounted to approximately $420,000 and the Philadelphia Fund to something like $133,000. The trustees of the Franklin Fund in Boston desired to use the amount in their hands at the end of a hundred years for an evening industrial school open to artisans of the trades, but hesitated to do so, as there was no provision for its support. In this emergency Mr. Andrew Carnegie generously offered to "match" Franklin's $420,000 for a building with $420,000 for endowment. It was gratefully accepted.

While Franklin's philanthropy had not blossomed into so great a sum as he had expected, it has, nevertheless, given to Boston one of the most fruitful agencies for that happiness which comes from the use of skill.

In Philadelphia in 1922 the sum of $133,000 which represented, with the accrued interest, the proportion of the Franklin Fund available at the end of one hundred years, was turned over to the Franklin Institute, one of the most useful agencies in Philadelphia for a training of those who have the perseverance and the ambition to make use of its opportunities.

Both cities are well along on their second century. At the end of 1928 the Boston trustees had in hand some $432,000 and the Philadelphia trustees at the end of 1928, $98,000. They are off for a second century race, Boston well in the lead but Philadelphia coming on at a good pace. It will be a fine century run. To prophesy as to the outcome in 1991 is scarcely worth while, particularly in view of the bad guess of shrewd old Ben himself, but we may safely assume that at the end of the second century of the trusts there will be established, in the two cities and in the two states, institutions reflecting credit on Franklin's philanthropy and giving fruitful service to the people of the two cities and their commonwealths.

The two funds have served to aid the cause which Franklin had at heart, although in ways that he did not anticipate. The lesson of personal thrift which he desired to drive home has not been made such a factor as he had hoped. The fact, however, that $5,000 invested and left at interest for a hundred years can accumulate to so great a sum is itself a lesson in thrift to the governments of the cities and commonwealths where he lived. Furthermore, the difficulties that the trusts encountered and the changes which social and economic factors brought about have made clear to givers of our day that no man can hope to

found a trust upon rigid lines and expect that these can be profitably observed for decades and centuries to come. The wise giver of today leaves to his trustees such measure of freedom as will enable them to adapt his trust to the conditions and the needs of the time.

Franklin preceded Mr. Carnegie and Mr. Rockefeller by a century in the experiment of the large philanthropic trust and they have wisely profited by the experience of the trusts which he created.

Mr. Carnegie had a great admiration for Franklin and was thoroughly familiar with his life and his printed works. In some respects the careers of the two men were strikingly similar. Both started as poor boys in a new growing country. Both were believers in the importance of skilled and honest craftsmanship. Both desired to make the benefactions that they created for mankind serve in a special degree those who by hard work and energy and faithfulness deserved to succeed. As a means to assist all ambitious youth both looked upon the circulating library as one of the most feasible and fruitful agencies for advancement. The libraries which Mr. Carnegie so generously gave to English-speaking peoples of the world grew in large measure out of the fact that he himself, as a poor boy, had received aid by the free use of a private library and, like Franklin, had come to believe that the youth who had access to good books could, with ability and energy, make his own way in any career to which he might address himself. Perhaps in our day the old lesson of personal thrift that Franklin not only preached but illustrated in his own life is a legacy of the wisest philanthropy.

# Franklin, the Craftsman

*International Association of Printing House Craftsmen*

By A. E. Giegengack
*President*

Benjamin Franklin, "Patron Saint of Printers," started his career of printing in 1718, at the early age of twelve. He was placed with his brother, James Franklin, a printer of Boston, to serve an apprenticeship to that trade. While acting in this capacity, Benjamin secretly wrote articles for the "New England Courant," published by his brother, and had the satisfaction of finding them well received. But, on this coming to the knowledge of his brother, he was severely lectured for his presumption and treated with great harshness.

The "Courant" was a very independent and racy paper, touching with great freedom the vices and follies of the times. James Franklin was imprisoned because one of the articles in his paper gave offense to the Assembly. He was released from prison with the order, "James Franklin should no longer print the paper called the 'New England Courant.' " It was then decided to print the paper under the name of Benjamin Franklin whose indentures were cancelled. Thus "Ben," early in 1723, first became a newspaper editor and publisher.

Fresh differences soon arose between the brothers, and Benjamin used his advantage to break his engagement and assert his freedom. Still only seventeen years of age he quit his brother's office, left Boston and went forth to seek his fortune. He was disappointed in New York and

was advised to proceed to Philadelphia, where he obtained a position as a compositor in Samuel Keimer's, one of the two printing establishments then in existence in Philadelphia.

Here "Ben" attracted the attention of Sir William Keith, the Governor of Pennsylvania, who induced him to go to London for the purpose of purchasing types to establish himself in business in Philadelphia. Keith's promise to finance the trip failed to materialize and Franklin found himself bound for England on his own resources. In referring to this incident he remarked: "Keith wished to please everybody; and, having little to give, he gave expectations."

The knock was a boost to Franklin. Stranded in London, he immediately secured work at Samuel Palmer's, a famous printing house in Bartholomew Close, an enclosed space adjoining the Church of St. Bartholomew, the oldest church in London. American visitors to London are always shown with pride the site of the printing office in which Benjamin Franklin worked at his trade. Demands in his rate of living made it necessary for him to obtain an increased income and he later secured a more remunerative position in the printing office of John Watts, one of the leading printers of his time.

After a residence of eighteen months in London, Franklin returned to Philadelphia, at the age of twenty, and soon resumed work in Keimer's shop in the capacity of foreman. As suitable types were often wanting, and could not be procured in America, Franklin contrived a mould for casting letters. He also turned his hand to engraving, made the ink, was warehouseman, and, in short, quite a

factotum. He realized his services were wanted only to train others in methods he had brought from London. This having been accomplished, Franklin saw in Keimer a disposition to find fault, and soon the break came. He later returned to Keimer's employ and went to Burlington, then the capital of New Jersey, to help his old employer in the matter of printing the paper money for the Province of New Jersey. He contrived a copper-plate press, the first seen in this country, and cut several ornaments and checks for the bills. The one-story building used by Franklin for this purpose in Burlington has been preserved as a museum.

Franklin now decided to start in business for himself, finding a partner in a printer whose father agreed to equip a printing office. The new firm was known under the name of Franklin and Meredith. Franklin furnished the brains and Meredith the money. As is usual in many partnerships so balanced, Meredith withdrew and the title of the firm now read: "B. Franklin, Printer." The affairs of the new company continued to prosper. Franklin knew how to set type correctly, how to operate and keep a press in order, and how to get good results upon it. Freedom from typographical errors was a feature of his work. He published the "Pennsylvania Gazette" and "Poor Richard's Almanack." We are indebted to him for many valuable lessons taken from his maxims in the "Almanack." We quote proverbs every day little thinking we owe thanks for the advice to Benjamin Franklin. Some of the familiar sayings are as follows:

"The sleeping fox catches no poultry."
"There will be sleeping enough in the grave."

"Lost time is never found again."

"A small leak will sink a great ship."

"Keep thy shop and thy shop will keep thee."

"Honesty is the best policy."

"He that riseth late must trot all day, and shall scarce overtake his business at night."

"Fools make feasts and wise men eat them."

"One today is worth two tomorrows."

"If you would have a faithful servant, and one that you like, serve yourself."

"Rather go to bed supperless, than rise in debt."

"Experience keeps a dear school, but fools will learn in no other."

Franklin had many characteristics which promoted his success in business. He was industrious, humble, frugal, temperate, sincere, just, honest, modest in manner, self-reliant and diligent. He was independent in expression of opinion, even when it concerned persons of high standing; he felt he "needed no man's patronage." Examination of his books and pamphlets shows the superior quality of his work. He was not satisfied with merely learning a new method or process, but he tried to see the reason for each operation and frequently provided better substitutes.

Franklin was a sincere believer in the motto "Share Your Knowledge," which is today the slogan of the International Association of Printing House Craftsmen. Through this Association the ideals of Craftsmanship which Franklin strove to attain are being realized in every quarter of the globe.

*Postscript by Henry Lewis Bullen, founder of the Typographic Library and Museum at Jersey City, New Jersey*

Benjamin Franklin was an intelligent, diligent and resourceful printing craftsman. He became a proprietor printer in 1728, later beginning the publication of his "Pennsylvania Gazette." In 1730 he was appointed public printer for Pennsylvania. It was his practice to set up young journeymen printers in business, supplying the printing office equipment, paying one-third of the running expenses and receiving one-third of the net profits, a highly equitable arrangement, which invariably worked out advantageously to both parties. These printing offices were in Charleston, South Carolina; Antigua and Jamaica in the West Indies; New York City; Lancaster, Pennsylvania; New Haven and Georgia. In 1748 he took David Hall, his foreman, into partnership, and retired from business, affluent. He retained, however, a financial interest in his printing enterprises. Franklin was already the most favorably known man in the Colonies, a leader of public opinion. He was almost immediately drawn into the field of statesmanship, which is another story.

The memorable year 1776 finds him in Paris, where he established a small printing office to be used for propaganda purposes and incidentally as a school of printing for his two grandsons. Leaving France in 1785, the most famous man of that period, he brought with him the printing equipment he had used and a complete type foundry, both of which he placed under the management of his grandson, Benjamin Franklin Bache, giving that youngster the constant benefit of his supervision. In 1790,

upon the death of Franklin, B. F. Bache became the sole owner. After Bache died, the type foundry was sold in 1806 to Archibald Binny and James Ronaldson, the only competitors. Eventually the type foundry became the best and most extensive in the world and still retains this preeminence as the American Type Founders Company.

After Franklin's return from abroad, although retired from his partnerships, he continued his active interest in printing as an art and an industry.

I doubt if Franklin would have attained to his eminence among the Immortals, if it were not for his good fortune —and the world's good fortune—to have learned the printing trade. His father wanted him to be a tallow chandler. Had he obeyed, I fear that his fame, if any, would have been local to Boston. There is nothing inspiring or forceful in tallow or its products, but which of all civilization's greater forces can equal the power of the printer's types?—truly none. Franklin was a diffident man, by no means an orator, timid about rising to speak—an unwilling speaker—averse to the arts by which politicians gain their fame and purposes. Invariably he sought to influence his countrymen and their friends and enemies by means of his leaden types, composed in his own shop. They gained him a world-wide audience, which was convinced by their silent but wide-extended voices that their master was uttering the profoundest wisdom in the guise of common-sense—the most uncommon element in men's conduct. Benjamin Franklin used many forces successfully in his unparalleled career, but his most powerful thunderbolts were found in the cases holding his invincible printing types.

# The Master of the Word Is the Master of the World

*International Advertising Association*

By Alfred Stephen Bryan

Mankind has been raised out of inky darkness by ink. Like dazzling drifts of eternal snow drop the sheaves of sheets from countless presses fed by the Genii of Advertising. When twilight lets fall her curtain and pins it with a star, advertising rides the reels of the rotaries, crop in fist and spur in flank, with the right-of-way of the king's messenger. Advertising has rouged the face of type and turned it as coquettish as the damask cheek of My Ladye Fayre. The need of speed has made Advertising scratch the match for the flash of invention to blaze the path to shorter paths. Advertising has reformed and refined alike printing types and types of printers, setting up fresh standards in setting up and, then, upsetting them for later and greater. The guildsman, through Advertising, has gained new homage and honor for his olden calling. It goes back to the cock-crow of culture. It will go on "till the sun grows cold and the leaves of the Judgment Book unfold," for the master of the word is the master of the world.

Stanley-like, amid some jungle waste you may put up at the Hotel Under the Stars with the earth for your bed, the sky for your roof and the wind for your lullaby. Yet the silent voice with a trillion tongues speaks to you out of the very face of the tin that you uncap for sustenance. Wherever galleons point their prows upon the Seven

Seas, wherever even caravans wend their way adrift the leafless desert, the silent voice with a trillion tongues makes life richer, sweeter, fuller.

They, be they dreamers of dreams or schemers for gain, who pour the plenitude of their gifts and graces into the art which perpetuates all arts may well nod to the friendly face of a familiar font or thrill to the throb of the purring presses. They are the torch-bearers of Civilization, burning the fulgent and flickerless flame; Mercuries more fleet than winged feet; Argonauts self-consecrated to the Quest of the Golden Fleece of Civilization.

Benjamin Franklin carved his face into the face of type. He cast his image in molten metal. He gave wings to words and rhythm to their flight. He made printing, publishing and advertising alike his wife and his daughter; his hobby and his holiday; his religion and his obsession; his Blackstone and his Baedeker; the first love of his salad days, the last love of his twilight hours, and the best beloved of both. Buffeted by a thousand disheartenments, he moiled and toiled, envisioning, as he peered into the crystal of the coming, the glory of the guild which was to transmute the gold of thought into the brass of type.

Franklin is the father of advertising in America. He was first to perceive that it is futile to make a thing to sell, if you don't make known that you make it. Many a "mute, inglorious Milton" there has been in history and poetry, but there was no mute inglorious Franklin. Couched in words that fell trippingly from his mind, though measuredly from his quill, and in terms that even today have the artless sincerity of artful simplicity, he set

forth his wants or his wares, beginning with "This is to give Publick Notice that." And, *mirabile dictu* now-a-days, he came to a halt when he had finished a thought. He knew that ideas do not need to hunt for words, though words, alas, must hunt for ideas.

In the days of Benjamin Franklin advertising was a whisper. Today it resounds with the crescendo of a thousand guns that rock the country from Portland to Portland and from Duluth to Dallas. Then, printing groped in inky darkness and the prodigies of Hoe were yet undreamed of.

It is all the more amazing that Franklin, bereft of the instrumentalities and influences which make advertising the Titanic power that it is today, could stamp his personality upon the advertising of his time so as to make it the model of advertising for all time—crystal-clear and cameo-sharp, draining the honey and spurning the pulp.

Franklin was first to illustrate a news story. He was first to practise the principle that advertising is news. He advertised America abroad long before he went abroad. He advertised electricity. Everything he did was advertising in its highest sense, namely, the moulding of favorable public opinion. Franklin was the first one-man advertising agency. Circumstances compelled him to be.

Franklin made his own type. He made the first copperplate press in America. He planned the first magazine. He printed the first novel—"Pamela." Balzac declared of *le grand* Franklin, as the French delighted to call him, that he invented the lightning-rod, the hoax, and the republic.

Franklin is the world's immortal advertiser of thrift—

"he that goes a-borrowing, goes a-sorrowing; a man may, if he knows not how to save as he gets, keep his nose to the grindstone; plough deep while sluggards sleep; dost thou love life? then, do not squander time, for time is the stuff life is made of." All these and many more gleams of gold in the dull quartz of a work-a-day world are expounded, never to be expunged, in the matchless maxims of "Poor Richard's Almanack," that treasure-trove of the thrifty. Translated into every civilized language, the fame of Poor Richard belts the globe.

Franklin worshipped print with that fiery fervor which is fathomed to its bottommost depth only by the philatelist, the antiquarian, the collector of plate and porcelain, and the advertising man to whom type, though mute, is the witching voice of an eternal *Lorelei*. Living in France, Franklin kept a private printing press in his house at Passy. There he published "Bagatelles," for the smell of ink was to him as frankincense and myrrh.

Franklin, reckoning his times and their limitations, was a great advertiser, but not a great self-advertiser. Running through all his writings, like the recurring fugue in a musical composition, was a tone of self-repression and understatement, admirable traits which—more's the pity! —are today almost as extinct as the dodo.

Franklin taught himself French, Italian, Spanish and Latin, that he might thereby become the consummate master of his own language. Small wonder that he could "distinguish and divide a hair 'twixt south and southwest side" as concerns the delicate shadings and *nuances* of words.

Though time stirs its cauldron with the rustier dipper

of each fleeting year, every anniversary of his birth lends new lustre to the illustrious name of Benjamin Franklin. No choir may chant his elegy, nor minstrel carol his lay. No chisel may hew his epitaph. No *Académie Americaine* may ordain his niche. Not paean nor panegyric, not garland of greatness, not epic of bronze nor heroic marble shall make Benjamin Franklin unforgettable, for every press reverently hums his name and every proof twines a fresh and fragrant leaf into the chaplet of his fame. He sits with the Aureoled, who, living, were deathless and who, dead, will live forever.

# Franklin, the Editor

*National Editorial Association*

By Josephus Daniels

*Ex-Secretary of the Navy*

*Editor of "The News and Observer," Raleigh, N. C.*

It is interesting to note the varying appraisements of Benjamin Franklin's contributions to his country and to the world. "His greatest service," says one historian, "was undoubtedly due to his skill in diplomacy." If that claim should be conceded, his fellow editors would reply that mastery of his chosen profession, journalism, was the stepping stone to the distinction he won when he walked and talked with kings. Three of the best fitted diplomats of recent years, following in Franklin's footsteps, were John Hay, Whitelaw Reid and Walter Page, who were graduated into diplomacy from the editorial sanctum.

The diplomacy needed in Franklin's day to enable a printer and editor, without patronage or name or wealth, to rise to the position that has caused him to be called, however correctly, by the title, "The First Civilized American," was of an order that set him apart from most men of his craft. From the case and the sanctum, the best instructors in accuracy and knowledge of the making of public opinion, Franklin went into legislative halls, became a delegate to the Continental Congress, was Postmaster General, an associate with Jefferson and Adams in drafting the Declaration of Independence, Governor of Pennsylvania, diplomat and scientist. In fact, there was

no matter of vital importance in his generation which did not receive impetus from that myriad-minded man.

If Franklin had touched life nowhere except as printer, editor and author, all parts of the same calling, he would have been illustrious, for in these he made and unmade opinion and officials. If he had confined himself to legislative or executive duties, he shone there in such a way as to mark him a practical and far-seeing statesman. If he had given himself exclusively to science, who of his generation would have stood higher? If diplomacy had commanded all his talent and genius, he could not have attained higher place in the galaxy of distinguished diplomats.

What process of training was it that enabled the unknown printer lad to climb all the rungs of the ladder and win imperishable renown? It is clear that, having no schooling beyond the most elementary branches in either academy or college, his university was the print shop and the editorial sanctum, to which he added the marvelous skill in debate developed in discussing public questions with fellow craftsmen and other young associates. The old-time printing office required quickness of mind and hand, accuracy and clearness, industry and skill, for the "art preservative of arts" is more of an art than a trade. From the case in the experience of Franklin, it was not even a step to the editorial tripod. Indeed he would not have known how to tell where composition with the stick left off and composition by the mind began. They were inseparable. It was only when it was recognized that the master printer was also a master of "English undefiled" that he must needs find a newspaper

through which he could give expression to the thoughts and policies his fertile mind conceived and framed for action.

The first essence of an editor is that he can command and hold attention. Few editors have excelled in both conversation and the pen. Franklin was a charming conversationalist, an excellent accomplishment for a diplomat, and his gay humor and illustrative anecdotes gave him an access where mere reasoning would not have opened doors. This grace captured the French before they had read anything he had written. Henri Martin, French historian, paid him the compliment of speaking of him as "of a mind altogether French in its grace and elasticity." With that indefinable power Benjamin Franklin's newspaper literally compelled the people of Philadelphia to "sit up and take notice." They could not ignore him or his views. He had the Horace Greeley faculty of making his sentences vascular so they would bleed if they were cut. He had, too, an inspiration as an editor and a constructive quality which made him the first editor of his day and fitted him for the high public positions he adorned.

It is well to remember that he won recognition first by writing articles for his brother's paper, which he slipped under the door of the printing shop with no name attached, and which were printed and attracted some attention. His complete and assured success came when in his "Pennsylvania Gazette" he used "spirited remarks" in the controversy between the Massachusetts Assembly and Governor Burnett. This fact should be stressed in schools of journalism for the incentive it will give to those being trained as editors, so they will not fall into the dangerous

habit of genuflection and adulation of those in official stations. Is not that lesson needed today, when it required an unknown country editor to uncover the Teapot Dome scandal, while the rest of us were indifferent or ignorant of the spoliation of the petroleum reserves?

I call him the real great Editor. He was a printer-editor in his youth, an editor-statesman in his maturity, an editor-diplomat as he grew in years and in wisdom. He was first, last and always the newspaper man with a nose for news, a genius for understanding how to reach the folks, a talent beyond compare for combining instruction with homeliness of expression and quaint humor with which his articles were shot through. He never wrote over the head of the average man. He used plain Anglo-Saxon, condensed to the *n*th degree. He used no blue pencil on his production, for there never was a surplus word. He could convey his idea, with illustration that hit the spot, in the fewest words. Every word told. It was placed in the sentence with the skill with which as a printer he put it into the stick. There was a rare condensation in those old-time editors who set up their own editorials from the type, before the typesetting machine jeopardized skill and art and the educating process. All progress has its drawbacks. The old-time printer educated many editors. Has the typesetting machine done as much?

An editor to win influence must have nothing of standpatism in his make-up. He must keep his eyes to the sunrise. He must have ideas to better the way things are done, to broaden knowledge, and to find outlets for new ideas and have the constructive conservatism to hold fast to the old, while keeping an eye open to all improvement.

These essential qualities Franklin incarnated. Though dead, he yet speaks, for the great journal he founded and made the most powerful influence of the day is still published as the "Saturday Evening Post." It was known more as the "Pennsylvania Gazette" when it exerted its influence. Franklin would recognize nothing about the present journal he founded except that it leads in circulation and gives instruction along with appeals to the imagination. He would wish to use a blue pencil on Sam Blythe's and other long articles by other writers who require 5,000 words to express themselves. The printer and publisher in him would see the carrying the articles over from page to page to fit in with the arrangement of advertising was born of business necessity and he would rejoice in the artistic development of advertising and illustration. He knew human nature and knew how to reach the farmer as well as the frequenters of the salon in Paris. "Poor Richard's Almanack" carried his homely wisdom to every fireside. His quaint humor and irony and sarcasm sent home his teaching and his shafts. Perhaps his humor did more to introduce him to the good-will of his readers than his other gifts. If any man has written a better Autobiography, I have not seen it. There are many longer and more ambitious, but none in which the writer reveals himself so perfectly, being free alike from false modesty and self praise. His pamphlets, in a day when the pamphleteer was long-winded and dull, had the quality of directness. These virtues in his books and pamphlets and addresses were born of his experience as an editor, for the only unforgivable sin in an editor is to tire or bore his reader. This Franklin never did. Perhaps the

reason, aside from his versatility and originality, was that he had an uncanny way of shooting folly and pretense.

Benjamin Franklin stood first in every undertaking to which he turned his hand. But success elsewhere was bottomed upon his genius as a journalist. He was first, last and all the time the editor, no matter what for the moment commanded his efforts. It was here he shone best. It was that experience which insured high achievement in every department of his versatile and great career. If John Adams' estimate is to be accepted as his standing, Franklin's reputation was "more universal than that of Leibnitz or Newton, Frederick or Voltaire, and his character more esteemed and beloved than all of them. If a collection could be made of all the Gazettes of Europe, for the better half of the 18th century, a greater number of panegyrical paragraphs upon *le grand* Franklin would appear, it is believed, than upon any other man who ever lived."

In claiming that it was his journalistic training that prepared Franklin for the high place he won, I am only accepting Franklin's own estimate. "Benjamin Franklin, Printer" was the title he bore. This epithet, which Franklin wrote of himself, is additional proof that before everything else he was a printer and journalist. In this particular he was not unlike his intimate friend, Jefferson, who said: "When I entered on the stage of public life I came to a resolution never to bear any other character than that of a farmer."

# Franklin Made Books, But Books Made Franklin

*American Booksellers Association*

By Ellis W. Meyers

*Executive Secretary*

Doctor Benjamin Franklin had a book. He had a kite, a printing press, an almanac, stock in one of the first real estate companies of the country, and a memorable journey to France. About all of these things we are told time and again, but about the book we hear little indeed. He also had a bookstore. Concerning which we have heard less.

The professional man, and the worker, rich man, and poor man, (and one might almost continue in that strain) all acclaim him as the patron saint of some particular line of endeavor, each contesting that in his field lay this man's greatest interest. To claim an almost undivided attention from so great a person, regardless of how important any work may be, is egotistic in the extreme. He had more than one thing to do at any one time and all the time. He was, in fact, a sort of odd jobsman. During the Revolution Franklin acted as propagandist, ofttimes taking liberties with the truth—where it was necessary to distort facts for the benefit of the slowly forming United States. No, the man was obviously too busy to be considered the special possession of any one industry.

The booktrade does not intend to claim sole ownership. But the fact that he spent some of his time in selling books must not be overlooked. So attention is called to

the fact the Doctor Benjamin Franklin had a bookstore.

One of the first things which is to be learned about Franklin's boyhood is that he was a devout reader. To quote Parton, he was "the kind of person in whose fertile mind each chance seed of knowledge or suggestion takes root and bears fruit. He had the knack of getting from a book the one thing to which it owed its value." He had more than that. From the very earliest, he was brought up with the printed word and gave it the time and attention which is its due. The keen mind analyzed everything that came its way, and as he recognized the impossibility of experiencing every sensation, and of living through every situation, he learned to gain knowledge vicariously —through the medium of things written. He soon became devoted to the making and distributing of books and we find throughout his life that, whatsoever he was doing, there was either a printing press, a library, a school or a bookstore. These were often well to the fore, but at all times at least in the background, having some part of his attention.

There are innumerable references in all of his works to books and authors. In a letter written in 1784 he says, in part, to Dr. Mather, of Boston, the son of Cotton Mather, "When I was a boy I met with a book entitled Essays to Do Good, which, I think was written by your father. It had been so little regarded by a former possessor that several leaves of it were torn out, but the remainder gave me such a turn of thinking as to have an influence on my conduct through life; for I have always set a greater value on the character of a doer of good than on any other kind of reputation; and, if I have been, as you

seem to think, a useful citizen, the public owes the advantage of it to that book."

"Franklin Made Books, But Books Made Franklin." This is not to be doubted. It is obvious that, in the realization that this keen man stamped them with the mark of his approval, books have received from him the deference which is their due, and it is equally obvious that his knowledge of their worth, and his use of the printed word, enabled him to become the really great man that he was.

He was ever the educator, building all on the plan of using the printed word and the bound page as his foundation. He was instrumental in establishing eighteen paper mills in the American Colonies, devised a reformed alphabet which was based on simplified and phonetic spelling, and founded the University of Pennsylvania. He conceived the idea of establishing in Philadelphia the first successful circulating library, the mother of all of our free circulating libraries today. He edited the best and most successful newspaper in all of the Colonies, was the first to attempt the illustrating of news in an American newspaper, was responsible for the foundation of one of the most widely read of our magazines, and the first novel published in America. He printed the first booksellers' catalogue of this country and he sold books. He made a comfortable fortune in the printing business in twenty years. During the time he continued to be Benjamin Franklin, Bookseller. And for that, we of the bookselling fraternity honor him. Yes indeed, Doctor Benjamin Franklin had a book—several in fact—and he sold them in his bookstore.

# Franklin, the Friend and Founder of Libraries

*American Library Association*

By Asa Don Dickinson

*Librarian, University of Pennsylvania*

It is universally recognized that Franklin was the embodiment of intelligent, practical benevolence. He was also, in his day, the foremost promoter of circulating libraries.

There is a mighty persuasiveness in these two truths when they are laid side by side. The first is a matter of common knowledge. The second is not so well known, and in this fact lies this essay's excuse for being.

Back-door access to the shelves of booksellers, first in Boston, and later in London, showed Franklin, when still a boy, that it is possible to make a very profitable use of books that one does not own. His personal demonstration of this fact—then grasped by few—bore good fruit on his return to Pennsylvania, after his first sojourn abroad.

The autumn of 1726 saw him, at twenty, back in Philadelphia, which was to remain his home, though not his residence, for the remainder of his days. A few months after his return the "Junto," a sort of debating society, was founded by Franklin and a group of his young men friends. This proved to be an event of some moment in the history of American libraries and is well worthy of commemoration. The story is best told from Franklin's account in the "Autobiography":

"About this time, our club meeting, not at a tavern, but in a little room of Mr. Grace's, set apart for that purpose, a proposition was made by me, that, since our books were often referr'd to in our disquisitions upon the queries, it might be convenient for us to have them altogether where we met, that upon occasion, they might be consulted; and by thus clubbing our books to a common library, we should, while we lik'd to keep them together, have each of us the advantage of using the books of all the other members, which would be nearly as beneficial as if each owned the whole. It was lik'd and agreed to, and we fill'd one end of the room with such books as we could best spare. The number was not so great as we expected; and tho' they had been of great use, yet some inconveniences occurring for want of due care of them, the collection, after about a year, was separated, and each took his books home again. And now I set on foot my first project of a public nature, that for a subscription library. I drew up proposals, got them put into form by our great scrivener, Brockden, and, by the help of my friends in the Junto, procured fifty subscribers of forty shillings each to begin with, and ten shillings a year for fifty years, the term our company was to continue. We afterwards obtain'd a charter, the company being increased to one hundred: this was the mother of all the North American subscription libraries, now so numerous."

So a library was "the *first* project of a public nature" conceived and launched by this incarnation of benevolent practicality. His other schemes could bide their time, be it noted. This one came first. That is a fact of which librarians may well be proud, and one which they may be forgiven for emphasizing.

The Library Company of Philadelphia was the first circulating library of importance in America. Under Franklin's fostering care it was a going concern from the

start and has remained so to the present day. Its influence has been widespread, and the founder's statement that "this was the mother of all the North American subscription libraries" seems justified by the facts as we now know them.

Wherever they were instituted, these libraries, said Franklin, "have improved the general conversation of the Americans, made the common tradesmen and farmers as intelligent as most gentlemen from other countries, and perhaps have contributed in some degree to the stand so generally made throughout the Colonies in defence of their privileges."

It may be interesting to review in some detail the founder's various relationships with the Library Company of Philadelphia. The third signer of the Instrument of Association (1731) is Benjamin Franklin, and the Franklin share stands to this day in the name of his lineal descendant, Mr. Franklin Bache.

Franklin, naturally, was a member of the original Board of Directors. He served in this capacity from 1731 to 1757, when he went to England as Agent of the Province. He returned in 1762 and again served upon the Library Board until his reappointment in 1764 to the same foreign duty. He was Secretary of the Board from 1746 to 1757.

During fifteen years of his service in England, Franklin acted as the Library's purchasing agent in London.

In 1731 he drew up a petition to the Pennsylvania Assembly for permission to use, as quarters for the Library, a vacant room in the State House. The petition was granted.

For three months in 1733 and 1734 he was actually the Librarian. His service in this capacity has been commemorated by Charles B. Mills' painting in the Franklin Union at Boston. His salary, unless he chose to serve *gratis*, was probably at the rate of a pound a month, that having been the remuneration paid to his predecessor. The Librarian, during his incumbency, was expected to give "due attendance in the Library on Wednesdays from two till three o'clock, and on Saturdays from the hours of ten till four . . . and may permit any civil gentleman to peruse the books of the Library in the Library room, but shall not lend to, or suffer to be taken out of the Library, by any person who is not a subscribing member any of the said books, Mr. James Logan only excepted."

The institution, then, in addition to being a circulating subscription library, was what we should now call a free public reference library. The unique courtesy accorded to James Logan is easy to understand. He had been William Penn's secretary and was the greatest scholar Pennsylvania could then boast. The finest product, by the way, of Franklin's press was Logan's translation of Cicero's "Discourse of Old Age," published in 1744. Logan had often aided the Board of Trustees in their choice of new books to be imported from abroad. He had himself the finest private library in the Province and possibly this last fact was not overlooked by the Board.

Franklin, the printer, was also of service to the Library Company in another way. His newspaper, "The Pennsylvania Gazette," displayed in its advertising columns many public notices regarding the affairs of the Library.

During these years Franklin paid the institution the

sincerest of compliments. He used it. He says, "This Library afforded me the means of improvement by constant study, for which I set apart an hour or two each day, and thus repair'd in some degree the loss of the learned education my father once intended for me. Reading was the only amusement I allow'd myself."

Franklin's interest in the Library Company of Philadelphia continued even during his long absences abroad. This is shown by frequent references to it which are to be found in his correspondence. At the end of 1773, for example, the Board reported to Franklin in England that "since our last the Library has been removed to a new building called the Carpenter's Hall . . . the books (enclosed within wire lattices) are kept in one large room and in another handsome appartment the apparatus is deposited and the Directors meet."

Circumstances caused the Library Company to move several times during the Doctor's lifetime. The last instance occurred after his final return to Philadelphia, in the year before his death. The collection had again outgrown its quarters and the Board was at last in position to erect a building for its permanent home. As the members felt that they "were indebted to Dr. Franklin for the *first* idea as well as *execution* of the plan of a Public Library" they requested him to write an inscription for the corner-stone which should "perpetuate a grateful rememberance of it." The minutes of September 3, 1789, tell us that "a large stone was prepared and laid at the southwest corner of the building with the following inscription, composed by the Doctor, except so far as relates to himself which the Committee have taken the liberty of adding to it":

Be it remembered
In honor of the Philadelphia Youth
(then chiefly artificers)
That in MDCCXXXI
They cheerfully
at the instance of Benjamin Franklin
one of their number,
Instituted the Philadelphia Library
which tho' small at first
Is become highly valuable and extensively useful
And which the Walls of this Edifice
are now destined to contain and preserve:
The first Stone of whose Foundation
was here placed
The thirty first Day of August, Anno Domini
MDCCLXXXIX

But Franklin, Father of Libraries, was to receive still further recognition. "William Bingham, having heard of the intention of the Directors, to erect a statue of white marble, of Doctor Franklin, as the founder of the Library, in a niche in the front of the building, was willing to furnish it at his own expense." This statue, be it noted, still ornaments the façade of the present building of the Library Company, on Locust Street, Philadelphia.

We have followed somewhat closely Franklin's associations with the Library Company of Philadelphia. They continued throughout his three-score years of adult life. But it must not be supposed that his bibliothecal interests were confined to this single institution. Far from it. He never neglected an opportunity for doing a good turn to a library, and indeed he founded at least one other institution of this sort. He himself tells the history of this

incident in a letter, dated Passy, March 18, 1785, to Richard Price:

> "Dear Friend:
>
> "My nephew, Mr. Williams, will have the honour of delivering you this line. It is to request from you a list of a few good Books, to the Value of about Twenty-five Pounds, such as are most proper to inculcate Principles of sound Religion and just Government. A New Town in the State of Massachusetts having done me the honour of naming itself after me, and proposing to build a Steeple to their meeting house if I would give them a Bell, I have advis'd the sparing themselves the Expence of a Steeple, for the present, and that they would accept of Books instead of a Bell, Sense being preferable to Sound. Those are therefore intended as the Commencement of a little Parochial Library for the Use of a Society of intelligent, respectable Farmers, such as our Country People generally consist of."

Beside his assistance to the two libraries which he actually founded, we know that he presented books to Harvard College, Yale College, the Universities of Glasgow and St. Andrews, and to the University of Pennsylvania. It was in fact most natural that he should have aided the last named institution, as he had been the prime mover in its organization. His gifts to it, undoubtedly, would have been larger, had not its first director, Provost William Smith, in his zeal for classical scholarship, alienated the good Doctor's sympathies by disregarding the emphasis which the latter always placed upon the expediency of adequate instruction in English and modern languages rather than in the ancient tongues. So Franklin's chief interest in university book collections—which would

naturally have been bestowed upon "Pennsylvania," the University he founded—was in great measure absorbed by the Harvard College Library. He presented it with books from time to time, and in September, 1755, his zeal for its advancement was so keen that he devised a plan for fostering its growth. This plan is set forth in the following letter to John Hancock, dated Philadelphia, September 11, 1755:

"Sir

"You may remember that when I last had the pleasure of seeing you, I mention'd the Inconvenience attending the want of a Fund to increase and improve your College Library.

"I imagin'd that a Subscription set on foot for that purpose might with proper Management produce something considerable. I know you are a Friend to the College, and therefore take the freedom of inclosing a Paper of that kind, and recommending it to your care to procure (if you approve of the design) a suitable number of Hands to it. Five and twenty subscribers at four Pistoles each per Annum would in five years produce five hundred Pistoles, which if all laid out in Books would make a handsome addition to the Library or if put to interest would produce a little Annual Income sufficient to procure the best new books published in each year. Some might perhaps Subscribe more than four Pistoles per annum and others less; and I think that a single Pistole or half a Pistole should not be refused; tho' such small sums might occasion a little more Trouble in Receiving or Collecting.

"I send with all an order on my Brother for my first Year's Payment. 'Tis but a trifle compar'd with my hearty good will and Respect to the College; but a small seed properly sown sometimes produces a large and fruitful Tree, which I sincerely wish may be the good Fortune of

this. My respectful Compliments to Mrs. Hancock and believe me to be with very great Esteem

"Sir Your most obedient humble Servant,

B. Franklin."

We know of at least one more instance of Franklin's zeal as a friend of libraries. He persuaded his medical friend, John Coakley Lettsom, to present a box of books to Dickinson College, an institution, by the way, which had been named in honor of Franklin's political opponent, John Dickinson.

Nothing has yet been said of Franklin's own private library the subject of a painstaking monograph (1924) by George Simpson Eddy. On his final return to America he brought with him no less than eighteen large boxes of books. To find space for all of them, he was indeed obliged to build an addition to his house. At the time of his death, his was the largest private library in America, consisting of 4,276 volumes, according to the inventory of his estate. Unhappily the good Doctor's books were scattered to the four winds in the years following his death, and we know today the whereabouts of but a small minority of them.

# Franklin, the Man of Letters

By Hamlin Garland .
*Of the American Academy of Arts and Letters*

Among the few books which my father's home on the Iowa Prairie possessed, when I was a boy of ten, (in 1870) was Franklin's "Autobiography," hence I can say that I had an early schooling in his method of writing and the kind of philosophy which he represented. An admiration for the book is an evidence of the fact that my father was a transplanted New Englander, and that the Sage of Philadelphia was in truth a Yankee philosopher and humorist who presented the thrift, the shrewd common sense and the precision of a typical Down-Easter.

In our school reader, I recall, was the story of the boy who paid too much for his whistle, and several other essays equally meaty; and as a family we were guided by certain of "Poor Richard's" rules of life. "Early to bed and early to rise makes a man healthy, wealthy and wise," was one of my father's chief maxims—as I can testify—but I regret to add that our early rising did not make my father wealthy or my mother healthy, but it did make her sons wise. We came early to a conviction that getting to work at dawn was not an ideal method of gaining either a livelihood or an education. Our neighbors who rose at a less difficult hour seemed quite as healthy and prosperous. One of the first points to be noted is that I had, at that time, no sense of the author's remoteness in time. I considered him a contemporary of my grandfather.

Years afterwards, when I came upon his writings in a

study of Colonial literature, I was impressed by their modernity, their easy grace and their security in the use of words. The men who were writing in 1746 did not think of writing as an art and perhaps Franklin did not consciously so do; but that he was an artist in the use of his pen is indisputable. He employed the right words. He put aside the turgid and pompous phrases so common in his day. Remotely influenced by the colloquial English school of the period, he was not an imitator of these. He developed at once an individual style which was as like him as the clothes he wore and the smile on his broad face. His writing was dryly humorous, suave and sly and shrewd. He wrote as a man of experience and learning, good naturedly sharing his experience with others.

In making up an estimate of any American writer of Colonial times, it is necessary, in fairness, to take into account his surroundings, his lack of literary progenitors, and the complete absence of advice and encouragement. The fact is, Franklin had no literary predecessors or companions in the Colonies. As a student of "The Spectator," and of Bunyan and Defoe, he contrived nevertheless to be our first Yankee author. There is in his writing something which was not English, something which had arisen from an informal, contriving, hard-working, self-reliant New World life. Furthermore, this quality was attained early. It appears in the first issues of his "Poor Richard," it is evident in his boyish essays. True, it gained in polish and suavity and readiness as he came into contact with the great and shining men of the Old World; but the native gold was there; it required only to be burnished. It was a natural ore, colored by New England's soil.

Although writing was only one phase of a many-sided career, Franklin became the chief author and most distinguished man of letters in the American Colonies. He was from boyhood a lover of books. He got together, at the last, one of the most complete libraries in America, and he knew what was inside the bindings of his volumes. He associated with those who talked of books and he loved the conversation of those who concerned themselves with authorship.

He saw himself and his neighbors in something like their proper perspective. In an age of religious controversy, preaching and prayer, he remains calmly humorous, looking on at his frenetic fellows, with the bland wisdom of a Chinese scholar. In truth he shows in noble degree the poise, the serene temper of the philosopher. The supreme merit of his style is just this, it mirrors his soul. If it is unconscious art, so much the more notable, for no one of his Colonial contemporaries had achieved it. The sermon and the oration were the characteristic expressions of the times; even the poetry was pamphleteering or rhymed sermonizing; but in Franklin the New World had produced a writer who discarded cant and buncombe and wrote plainly, lucidly, and above all, pleasantly, of many things.

He was a famous story teller and in the following story, (which is less often quoted than it deserves) I find a fore-taste of Abraham Lincoln, who may very well have taken this anecdote as a model.

Concerning his lack of order, Franklin writes, "My faults vexed me so much, and I made so little progress in amendment, and had such frequent relapses, that I

was almost ready to give up the attempt, and content myself with a faulty character. In that respect, I was like the man who, in buying an ax of a smith, my neighbor, desired to have the whole of its surface as bright as the edge. The smith consented to grind it bright for him if he would turn the wheel; he turned, while the smith pressed the broad face of the ax hard and heavily on the stone, which made the turning of it very fatiguing. The man came every now and then from the wheel to see how the work went on, and at length would take the ax as it was, without further grinding. 'No,' said the smith, 'turn on, turn on; we shall have it bright by-and-by; as yet it is only speckled.' 'Yes,' says the man, 'but I think I like a speckled ax best.' "

Humor is a sign of comparative ideas. It is a sign that a writer sees all round his subject and not merely one side of it. Franklin, although an uneducated man in the sense of lacking schooling, had the divine faculty of educating himself in life and philosophy. He was curious about society and the natural world. He studied many phases of life and invented many conveniences and necessities for the home. His mind could not be hedged in by the gloomy dogma of his day, and in his writing all these humane qualities appear, whether by design or not. If to express one's soul freely, copiously, and without waste of words constitutes a great writer, Franklin deserves the world-wide fame which his books have won.

# Franklin, the Prophet of American Education

*National Education Association*

By Cornelia S. Adair
*As President*

*and*

J. W. Crabtree
*Secretary*

As a rule, the size of a man depends on the angle from which he is viewed. The one who is outstanding in science may be lacking in the qualities of statesmanship. The one of great literary ability may be lamentably weak on the platform or in conversation. But view Benjamin Franklin from any angle and you see him towering with the greatest in the field: Science, invention, literary genius, statesmanship, philosophy, law. But what about him from the angle of Education? Having had only two years' schooling all told and having given so much time and attention to other lines of human endeavor, he could hardly be expected to win a name for molding ideals in education, for finding fundamentals in this field to stand through the centuries, or for inspiring and helping the leaders in educational thought in the nation. All these things he did.

Franklin's Educational career began with the publication of "Poor Richard's Almanack" in which he sought to reach the young through the home with sayings and thoughts to elevate the mind and equip it with standards and ideals for life. These were read in all homes. They

were committed to memory by parents and by children. They were used extensively in conversation and in argument. They were used as mottoes in the school room and the home during Franklin's day and ever since that time.

The proverbs invented, adapted, or quoted in the twenty-five annual editions of "Poor Richard's Almanack" (1732-1757) and condensed in "The Way to Wealth" in 1757, circulated everywhere in their original form. They were reprinted on broadsides at home. They were translated throughout Europe, as "the most famous piece of literature the Colonies produced." Many of their teachings concerning industry, frugality and resolution, enforced by their humor and preserved by their compact form, are still current in phrases like "Empty thy purse into thy head," "Diligence is the mother of good luck," "Many words will not fill a bushel," "A plowman on his legs is higher than a gentleman on his knees." "Poor Richard's Almanack" and its influence on the lives of the people for more than a century would in itself have immortalized the name of Franklin.

Franklin's ideas on education are set forth clearly in proposals and letters. In 1743 he wrote a proposal for promoting useful knowledge among the British Plantations in America, in which he explained that the first drudgery of settling had given place to circumstances that allowed the cultivation of the arts. He advocated an organization to be called the American Philosophical Society, as an outgrowth of the Junto, with headquarters and regular meetings in Philadelphia. This Society was finally inaugurated and continued with Franklin as its president until his death. Many eminent men have co-

operated in carrying out the plans of the founder, with notable scientific results, down to the present day.

Franklin's ideas on education are expressed in his two papers that deal with the "English Academy in Philadelphia," now the University of Pennsylvania. In the first of these, published in 1749, he advocates the establishment of a school in which the chief subjects of instruction shall be English, arithmetic, geometry, astronomy, and history—"those things that are likely to be most useful and most ornamental; regard being had to the several professions for which they are intended."

These subjects should not, however, be treated in the ordinary didactic manner; for—

> if History is made a constant part of their reading, may not almost all kinds of useful knowledge be that way introduced to advantage, and with pleasure to the student. As Geography, by reading with maps, and being required to point out the places where the greatest actions were done. Ancient Customs, religious and civil, being frequently mentioned in history will give occasion for explaining them. Morality, by making continual observation on the causes of the rise and fall of any man's character, fortune and power mentioned in history. Indeed, the general natural tendency of reading good history must be to fix in the minds of youth deep impressions of the beauty and usefulness of virtue of all kinds, public spirit and fortitude.
>
> The history of commerce, of the invention of arts, rise of manufactures, progress of trade, change of its seats, with the reasons and causes, may also be made entertaining to youth, and will be useful to all. And this, with the accounts of the prodigious force and effect of engines and machines used in war, will naturally introduce a desire to be instructed in mechanics, and to be informed of the prin-

ciples of that art by which weak men perform such wonders, labor is saved, and manufactures expedited.

The idea of what is true merit should also be often presented to youth, explained and impressed on their minds, as consisting in an inclination, joined with an ability, to serve mankind, one's country, friends, and family; which ability is, with the blessing of God, to be acquired or greatly increased by true learning; and should, indeed, be the great aim and end of all learning.

"An Idea of the English School for the Academy" (1750), gives many specific and often ingenious suggestions for the teaching of English grammar, spelling, pronunciation, reading, and composition, and the correlation of these with other studies, all arranged for six successive classes. In his declining years, after he began leaving matters more largely with the other trustees, there was less and less emphasis on English and the plans of the founder, until finally there was scarcely anything but Latin left. This whole procedure was characterized by Franklin in 1789, as not only shamefully disregardful of the original constitution of the academy, but also as foolishly prejudiced in favor of ancient customs that were quite unsuited to so new a country.

In a letter to Dr. Samuel Johnson dated Philadelphia, August 23, 1750, Franklin praised the calling of teaching in these words:

"I think, with you, that nothing is of more importance for the public weal than to train up youth in wisdom and virtue. Wise and good men are, in my opinion, the strength of a State much more so than riches or arms, which, under the management of ignorance and wickedness, often draw on destruction, instead of providing for the safety of the

people. And though the culture bestowed on *many* should be successful only with a *few,* yet the influence of those few, and the service in their power, may be very great. Even a single woman, that was wise, by her wisdom saved a city.

"I think, also, that general virtue is more probably to be expected and obtained from the education of youth than from the exhortation of adult persons; bad habits and vices of the mind being, like diseases of the body, more easily prevented than cured. I think, moreover, that talents for the education of youth are the gift of God; and that he on whom they are bestowed, whenever a way is opened for the use of them, is as strongly *called* as if he heard a voice from heaven; nothing more surely pointing out duty, in a public service, than ability and opportunity of performing it."

Franklin's own development and his writings portray the kind of education required to satisfy the national intuitions and instincts. He may justly be regarded as the prophet of American education. He deserves a leading place among American educators. The wonder is that a century and a half elapsed after his lucid exposition of the subject before the country at large could rid itself of its ancient traditions and give unquestioned moral support and social sanction to his sane and sensible precepts and conclusions.

No scholar or university graduate of his day had greater recognition from learned societies and universities for scholarly attainments, great thinking, and high-class achievements than did Franklin with only two years of formal education to his credit. In 1756 he was elected a Fellow of the Royal Society of England. In 1759, the degree Doctor of Laws was conferred upon him by the

University of St. Andrews, Scotland. In 1762, the University of Oxford conferred upon him the degree D. C. L. In 1766, 1771 and 1772, the great German Universities conferred upon him their greatest scholarly honors. He was made member of practically all the great learned societies in Europe. Universities abroad as well as our own great colleges—Harvard and Yale in 1753, and William and Mary in 1756—honored themselves by honoring this self-made man with their highest degrees. In 1787 he helped to start Franklin College—now merged with Marshall College as Franklin and Marshall College. Franklin later with his medals tried to encourage the school children of Boston.

Franklin did not write the text books for the schools. He did more than that. He dictated their spirit. He set forth needs and outlined reasons for meeting them. He gave the point and purpose of training in terms all could understand. He worked out principles so close to the great central core of virtues and values, that the minister draws from them in his sermons, the editor bases editorials on them, the diplomat finds in them his best lessons on diplomacy, and the educational leader backs up his plans and policies with these basic thoughts of Franklin. As time goes on we shall see even more clearly than we do today, the evidences of Benjamin Franklin's influence on American Education.

# Franklin, the First American Spelling Reformer

*Simplified Spelling Board*

By Charles H. Grandgent
*President*

*Professor of Romance Languages at Harvard University*

The critic of society is satisfied to detect our failings and upbraid them, the philanthropist longs to make us happier and better, the real benefactor (who is perforce also an inventor) finds the ways and means to do so. Critic, philanthropist, benefactor, inventor—Benjamin Franklin was all of these. Always on the alert to discover symptoms, quick and accurate in his diagnosis of the disease, he could not rest until he had found the remedy.

Among the minor human miseries that caught his sympathetic eye, and challenged his resourcefulness, was English spelling. In his day, to be sure, the malady had not become absolutely chronic: usage was more personal than it is now; our orthography had not quite settled down into its present fossilized badness. A glance at the correspondence of the time, or at George Washington's diary, for instance, will give one an idea of the freedom still left to individuality. But that liberty was generally ill employed. The multitudinous spellings of the multitude were, as a rule, not a whit better than the Johnsonian norm; their only advantage lay in the variety of their inappropriateness. And Johnsonian authority, all the

while, was rapidly approaching the absolute. If the users of our language were to be saved from unintelligent despotism, help must come quickly. "In short," said Franklin, "whatever the difficulties and inconveniences now are, they will be more easily surmounted now, than hereafter; and some time or other, it must be done: or our writing will become the same with the Chinese as to the difficulty of learning and using it."

On our shores Franklin was the first to appreciate the danger, the first to attempt a rescue. In the old country, to be sure, men from time to time had risen in revolt, proposing now mild alleviations which were often successful, now more or less fantastic radical change which bore no fruit. Of their efforts our reformer apparently had no knowledge. In this matter, as in so many others, he drew from his own observation his own inferences and applied a cure of his own devising. Little versed in linguistics, a total stranger to phonetic science, led by his inborn common sense, he went straight to the heart of the matter. More clearly than most of the philologically trained innovators, he saw what the trouble was; more audaciously than most simplifiers before or after him, he applied the cure.

The other idioms of Europe, as they have developed, have with greater or less pertinacity endeavored to adapt their alphabetical symbolism to their sounds, trying to keep their orthography nearly abreast of their speech. Italian and Spanish, which have changed but slowly, have best succeeded in this harmonization. English, forging ahead very fast, seems early to have abandoned hope; hence a written and printed language that has few points

of contact with our real parlance, and no logical relation. Should we (preferring that our children have only one mother-tongue to learn, instead of two) make a trial of readjusting the two branches, we should find, before advancing far, that our alphabet is inadequate. English is extraordinarily rich in sounds, so rich that the Roman letters, sufficient though they may have been for Latin, are not numerous enough to supply our need, if spelling is to be consistent. For consistency can be maintained only by giving to every sound a symbol of its own. All this our Yankee philosopher understood very well.

Confronted with the disparity of supply and demand, some present-day reformers, giving up (for the moment, at least) the notion of complete renovation, have confined themselves to the task of improving details—cutting out quite needless letters, curing little contradictions, banishing small difficulties that can be removed without creating big ones. Such has been the work of the American Simplified Spelling Board. Others, while shrinking from the admission of new characters, or even diacritics, have embarked on the enterprise of thorough-going revolution, with the ideal of universal harmony of sound and representation. To effect their end, they are obliged to regard certain groups of letters (such as *ee*, *oo*, *th*, *sh*, *ng* in our present spelling) as single symbols, representing each a single sound. The result is a fair degree of consistency, not without clumsiness. This is the method of the English Simplified Spelling Society. Bolder and (in blessed ignorance) more scientific than either of these was Franklin's homespun technique.

The most uncompromising advanced phoneticians of

today insist on the principle of one sign for every sound, and always the same sound for every sign. Of this hardy vanguard—but a century or so ahead of it—was Benjamin Franklin, "Thus the g," he declares, discussing his proposed alphabet, "has no longer two different sounds, which occasioned confusion, but is, as every letter ought to be, confined to one. The same is to be observed in all the letters, vowels and consonants, that wherever they are met with, or in whatever company, their sound is always the same. It is also intended, that there be *no superfluous* letters used in spelling; that is, no letter that is not sounded." These principles he carries out rigidly. Six letters he discards from the alphabet, inasmuch as other letters represent the sounds for which they stand: they are *c*, *j*, *q*, *x*, *w*, and *y*. On the other hand, he introduces six new characters, of his own invention, to denote six sounds not hitherto equipped with symbols. "This alphabet," he says, "by six new letters, provides, that there be no distinct sounds in the language *without letters* to express them." Whether he actually realizes this last purpose is open to question. One has to put a very liberal construction on the phrase "distinct sounds." It is to be observed that he leaves the alphabet, as he found it, with twenty-six letters, having rejected six and added six; and English sounds (it is scarcely necessary to say) go far beyond twenty-six in number. By a clever classification Franklin reduces the count of really significant varieties; but still he leaves undifferentiated such pairs as *cot* and *caught*, *full* and *fool*. Presumably he would have done better to invent a few more characters.

How his system works out, one can see to some extent

from a few texts extant in his proposed orthography. Two stanzas we have from Addison's poem, *The Storm*. Then a short letter from Miss Mary Stevenson, in Kensington, criticizing the new method. Lastly, a long answer by Franklin. The result, if not quite satisfactory to the fanatical phonetician, is surprisingly clear and neat.

If only the author had finished his demonstration (for the work is incomplete), and had published and pushed it, he might conceivably have altered fundamentally—and vastly to its advantage—the whole course of American pedagogy. He never did print it, possibly because of the difficulty of casting the new types, possibly because he was too much occupied with other things. He was a busy man; and busy times were coming. Written in 1768, the little treatise was left in manuscript—"A Scheme for a New Alphabet and Reformed Mode of Spelling; with Remarks and Examples." It saw the light in Jared Sparks's complete edition of Franklin's works (vol. VI, p. 295), Boston, 1840. Did he show it to many people? Miss Mary Stevenson, of Kensington, is the only confidant of whom we have record.

Can it be that the author was discouraged by Miss Stevenson's adverse opinion, communicated in 1768, the year in which the project was outlined? That seems quite out of the question. Franklin was not easily turned from his purpose. Besides, her arguments—essentially identical with those now raised by superficial critics—were triumphantly refuted by him. "I have transcribed your alphabet, &c.," she writes, "which I think might be of service to those, who wish to acquire an accurate pronunciation, if that could be fixed; but I see many inconveni-

ences, as well as difficulties, that would attend the bringing your letters and orthography into common use. All our etymologies would be lost, consequently we could not ascertain the meaning of many words; the distinction, too, between words of different meaning and similar sound would be useless, unless we living writers publish new editions. In short, I believe we must let people spell on in their old way, and (as we find it easiest) do the same ourselves. *With ease and with sincerity I can, in the old way, subscribe myself, Dear Sir, Your Faithful and affectionate servant, M. S.*" All of the above, except the italicized part, is written in Franklin's new script, and very correctly. But surely the gentle bluestocking's reasons are not of a character to shake the convictions of one who has discerned so clearly what is needed, and with so enlightened foresight has planned a cure.

Franklin's reply, made in the same year, 1768, is entirely spelled after the new style—with a few unimportant slips, doubtless inevitable in the work of one who has had little practice. Difficulties, he points out, are encountered by all reforms. "The true question then, is not whether there will be no difficulties or inconveniences, but whether the difficulties may not be surmounted; and whether the conveniences will not, on the whole, be greater than the inconveniences." Wisely he adds: "The difficulties are only in the beginning of the practice; when they are once overcome, the advantages are lasting." The good spellers can, he thinks, learn the new system in a week; for the bad spellers, the new style will be more natural than the old, since it represents the phonetic tendency to which most of their mistakes are due.

For the etymological argument Franklin had as scant respect as had the late Sir James Murray, editor of the "Oxford Dictionary," who maintained that more than half of the etymological suggestions of our standard orthography are misleading. In fact, Franklin regarded etymologies as "at present very uncertain"—wherein once more he showed his acumen. Moreover, words alter their signification, "and we do not look to etymology for their present meanings." And he adds a couple of excellent illustrations.

To the objection that "words of different meaning and similar sound" would no longer be distinguished, Franklin replies that the distinction, in any case, disappears in spoken conversation, and yet the context suffices to prevent confusion. "If this is sufficient," he continues, "in the rapidity of discourse, it will be much more so in written sentences, which may be read leisurely, and attended to more particularly in case of difficulty, than we can attend to a past sentence, while a speaker is hurrying us along with new ones."

The silly statement (too frequently repeated) that "all the books already written would be useless" is answered with patient courtesy. "This inconvenience would only come on gradually, in a course of ages. You and I, and your own living readers, would hardly forget the use of them. People would long learn to read the old writing, though they practised the new." Here is foreshadowed precisely the overlapping method of introduction which the most modern and the most practical spelling reformers now advocate. If the Italians, he explains, had gone on spelling their language in the Latin fashion, it would

now be nearly unintelligible. The ancient Latin books remain, however, accessible to all those who know Latin. "It is true that, at present, a mere unlearn'd Italian cannot read the Latin books; though they are still read and understood by many. But, if the spelling had never been changed, he would now have found it much more difficult to read and write his own language; for written words would have had no relation to sounds, they would only have stood for things; so that if he would express in writing the idea he has, when he sounds the word *Vescovo*, he must use the letters *Episcopus*."

In later life, after the stirring events of the Revolution and the establishment of the Republic, Franklin's views remained the same. We find him in 1786 writing to Mrs. Jane Mecom, who had apologized for her poor spelling: "You need not be concerned, in writing to me, about your bad spelling; for, in my opinion, as our alphabet now stands, the bad spelling, or what is called so, is generally the best, as conforming to the sound of the letters and the words."

Critic, philanthropist, benefactor, inventor, Benjamin Franklin saw exactly what was wrong in our use of language, he was eager to remedy the defect, and he characteristically set about doing so, inventing a remedy as practical as it was simple. And he answered in advance the principal arguments that have been used against change. Our first spelling reformer, in plain common sense he was the equal of all that have come after.

# Franklin, America's First Cartoonist

*Cartoonists of America*

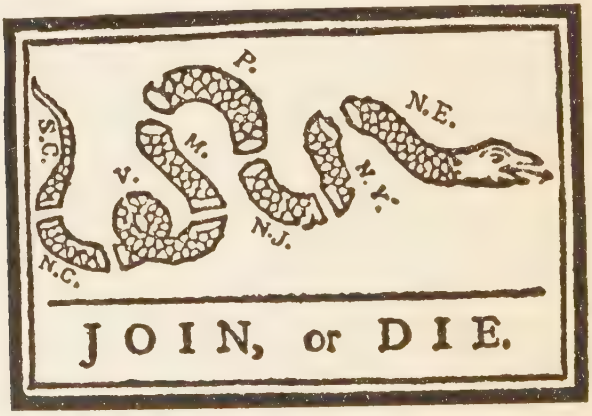
By Charles H. Sykes

There is something in human nature which delights in fixing upon a first occurrence—a feeling of satisfaction pervades us when we find who first said this, did that or created the other. One manifestation of this is to be found in the bibliophile who spends the greater part of his time and fortune searching the world for a certain first edition; another is the ancient Greek philosophers who sought to find what first existed—the original stuff of the universe. If this urge were great enough to make us undertake to determine the identity of those who originated a multitude of things which we, today, consider commonplace, we should frequently encounter the name of Benjamin Franklin. This gentleman is not accorded the title "father of his country"—that is given to Washington—but he was productive of so many projects, inventions and creations that he might well be termed the "father of his country's civilization."

Franklin is well known as the inventor of the lightning rod and Franklin stove; he has often been eulogized as a scientist, author and statesman. But one facet of this many-sided man which has remained in comparative obscurity is the artistic side. Primarily, he was a printer. With such a future in view he had been apprenticed to his printer-brother, James, with whom he quarrelled, and breaking his indentures, went to Philadelphia. There he became associated with Samuel Keimer, who later started the "Pennsylvania Gazette" and in due course

of time he set up an independent shop, taking over the "Gazette." Not content to supply the letter press alone, he also tried his hand at illustrating—having obtained an elementary knowledge of perspective by making diagrams and sketches to illustrate his literary and scientific work.

In this manner, what is believed to be the first attempt of a Colonial paper to illustrate news occurred when he engraved a very crude type-metal map of the siege of Louisburg, to accompany an account of that event. In "Plain Truth" he designed and engraved a cut of "Hercules and the Wagoner" but what is probably his most important contribution was the justly famous snake device with the motto "Join, or Die," the first cartoon to be




published in this country. The "Pennsylvania Gazette" of May 9, 1754, contained an account of the surrender of the fort occupied by Captain Trent, later Fort Duquesne, to the French on the 17th of April. The Indians wanted to join the English to help drive out the French, and the

"Gazette" said that unless this were effected the French would "kill, seize and imprison our Traders and confiscate their Effects at Pleasure (as they have done for several Years past), murder and scalp our Farmers, with their Wives and Children, and take an easy Possession of such parts of the British Territory as they find most convenient for them; which if they are permitted to do, must end in the Destruction of the British Interest, Trade and Plantations in America."

This appeal for concerted action was supplemented by a pictorial design of a snake, divided into eight sections; the head being labelled with the initials of New England and the other portions, in turn, with those of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina and South Carolina. Beneath this was the motto "Join, or Die." Although the first appearance of this cut was in the "Pennsylvania Gazette" it was almost immediately reprinted by a great number of papers throughout the Colonies with slight variations in the drawing or motto—or both. While it is practically impossible to determine positively whether or not it was done by Franklin, it has been the general belief that such was the case, and he has been thus accredited. In 1864, James Parton says: "'*We must unite, or be overcome,*' said Franklin. In May, 1754 . . . he published an article to this effect in the 'Gazette,' and appended to it one of those allegorical wood-cuts of which he was so fond."

Colonel Higginson also attributed the snake device to Franklin, saying, in 1886: "It was in this convention [the Albany Congress, 1754] that Franklin began a course of national influence which was long continued, and brought

forward his famous representation of the snake dismembered, with the motto 'Unite, or Die.' " "Unite, or Die" was one variant of the motto as it appeared in papers other than the "Gazette."

The design now entered an eleven-year period of hibernation until it was again brought forth in 1765. On the first of November of that year, the Stamp Act went into effect. On the twenty-first of the preceding September, there appeared a short political skit called the "Constitutional Courant," which, when analyzed, was found to contain the following six features: the heading at the top of the first page with the snake device and the motto "Join, or Die"; Andrew Marvel's address "To the Public"; the article of *Philoleutherus;* the article of *Philopatriae;* an item about the changes in the Ministry in England; and lastly, the imprint. This paper became immensely popular and was copied in at least three different forms, reviving once again Franklin's snake device.

After the "Constitutional Courant" ran its course in 1765, the cut did not appear again—save in isolated instances—until June, 1774. John Holt, publisher of the "New-York Journal," had always used the Royal Arms as a device for his paper, but on the twenty-third of June, 1774, they were superseded by a snake device, but one of a design different from those of 1754 and 1765. This reptile was divided into nine parts—Georgia being added on as the tail—and the motto was "Unite, or Die." This device was discarded in favor of another on the fifteenth of the following December.

At three different times, then, the famous snake device—presumably originated by Franklin—became prom-

inent in the history of the Colonies; first, shortly before the meeting of the Albany Congress in 1754; again in 1765, when the Stamp Act went into force, and finally a year or so before the outbreak of the Revolution. We are all familiar with the flag with the snake and the motto "Don't tread on me" first hoisted to the mainmast December 3, 1775. This was probably an outgrowth of the Franklin snake device.

Patriotism and a desire to influence English public sentiment in favor of the Colonies induced Franklin to once again try his hand at drawing. To this end he produced and distributed in 1753 a rude copper-plate engraving which demonstrated the sad condition to which Great Britain would be reduced if her harsh policy towards her Colonies were to be continued, and was accordingly entitled "Britannia Reduced."

To borrow the description of William Cabell Bruce in "Benjamin Franklin Self-Revealed": "The limbs of Britannia, labelled Virginia, Pennsylvania, New York and New England lie scattered about her, and she, with her eyes

and arm stumps uplifted to Heaven, is seen sliding off the globe, with a streamer inscribed *Date Obolum Bellisario* thrown across all that remains of her legs. Her shield lies useless by her side, the New England leg has been transfixed by her lance, and the hand of the arm labelled Pennsylvania has released its grasp on a small sprig of laurel. The English oak has lost its crown and stands a bare trunk, with briars and thorns at its feet and a single dead branch sticks from its side." In the background is the English Navy—for sale. The idea to be conveyed was that Scotland, Ireland, England and the Colonies were all parts of a whole, but that unfair discrimination would prove disastrous to the Empire.

And so the cartoon takes its place with the other creations of this "first civilized American." As illustrator of the siege of Louisburg, as creator of the symbolic snake design, and as political artist of "Britannia Reduced," Franklin earns the right to be termed the first American cartoonist. Times and customs have changed, and cartoons now appear daily as an interpretation of current events, not as an illustration of them, yet every American cartoonist must acknowledge Benjamin Franklin as his patron saint, thus paying tribute to a highly interesting though less familiar angle of that truly remarkable brain.

# Franklin, the Philosopher and Scientist

*The Franklin Institute of the State of Pennsylvania*

By Howard McClenahan

*Secretary*
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One of the outstanding inventors of America is said to have experienced much irritation when, in the course of protracted patent litigation, the learned jurist presiding over the court announced it as his opinion that "the next step in the development of the invention was an obvious one to take!" One can understand, and probably sympathize heartily with, the feeling of the inventor when he blurted out, "I wish to Heaven some of these 'blank' judges would point out these 'obvious' steps before I have spent weary days and sleepless nights in trying to discover, and make, them!"

When one reads the scientific writings of Benjamin Franklin, one's sympathies are apt to be with the judge—and one is likely to feel that the experimental steps taken were the "obvious" ones, and that no others could possibly have been taken. The reader is perhaps confused by the apparently trivial character of the experiments made, experiments which prove upon proper consideration to possess the fundamental simplicity of real greatness. And he overlooks the profundity of the questions propounded and the answers obtained. Just how "obvious" the experiments were is made clear by the fact that men had been

thinking of these problems for centuries, perhaps for milleniums, without having these "obvious" things recognized and applied in their thought. Not until Franklin applied his fertile brain to the problems were they solved, and solved with a thoroughness which intrigues our admiration even today. An excellent illustration of this characteristic of Franklin will be noted in his method of proving the influence of color upon the absorption of light by materials. He took pieces of the same size of the broadcloth from a tailor's pattern card, of various colors. They were black, dark blue, a lighter blue, green, purple, red, yellow, white. He spread them on the clean snow side by side, on a bright sunshiny morning. In a few hours, the black had sunk so deep into the snow that it was sheltered from the direct sunlight by the snow above it, the dark blue had sunk almost as far, the lighter blue still less, "the other colors less as they were lighter; and the quite white remained on the surface of the snow, not having entered it at all."

Could any experiment be more direct, more simple? Could any experiment possibly be more convincing? All of the samples were of the one material, broadcloth. They differed only in color. They were all spread on snow side by side, and all were shone upon by the light of the same sun. The cloths of different colors sank different distances into the snow, Franklin said, because of the different absorptions of the light of the sun, which became transformed into heat which melted the snow; the more light absorbed, the more snow melted; hence, black is the best absorber, white the worst.

The scientific caution of the man immediately appears.

Having answered his question, he at once sets out to confirm it by other tests of different nature. He says, "Walk but a quarter of an hour in your garden when the sun shines, with a part of your dress white and a part black. Then apply your hand to them alternately, and you will find a very great difference in warmth. The black will be quite hot to the touch, the white still cool."

Franklin's philosophy of knowledge at once appears in the extract from one of his writings. He says, "What signifies philosophy"—knowledge of physical science—"that does not apply to some use? May we not learn from hence that black clothes are not so fit to wear in a hot sunny climate as white ones, because in such clothes the body is more heated by the sun when we walk abroad, and are at the same time heated by the exercise? . . . That summer hats for men or women should be white, as repelling the heat which gives headaches to many, and to some the fatal stroke that the French call the 'Coup de Soleil'? That the ladies' summer hats, however, should be lined with black, as not reverberating on their faces those rays which are reflected upwards from the earth or water? That the putting of a white cap of paper or linen within the crown of a black hat, as some do, will not keep out the heat, though it would if placed without? That fruit walls being blacked may receive so much heat from the sun in the daytime as to continue warm in some degree through the night, and thereby preserve the fruit from frosts, or forward its growth?"

These three steps are to be observed in all of Franklin's scientific work: (a) the questioning and experimentation; (b) the confirmation of results gotten by other

experiments and observation; (c) the attempt to apply the knowledge gained to the service of men. No more fruitful or reasonable method is applied by the scientists of today.

That part of Dr. Franklin's scientific success which met with greatest public acclaim was undoubtedly his famous "kite experiment," by which he drew electric charges from the atmosphere and proved the electric nature of lightning.

This observation, in substance, was not made first by Franklin, but was carried out by several gentlemen in Europe, but always in strict agreement with the plan suggested by Franklin and which he, in effect, used in the kite experiment. But he did his work with the kite before he learned anything whatever about their successes with fixed lightning rods, as suggested by him, and this famous experiment was the direct result of his favorite aim to make useful to mankind the discoveries which he had made.

Franklin's interest in electrical things seems to have been aroused in 1746, when he attended a lecture by a Dr. Spence of Boston. Franklin had organized in 1727 a group of gentlemen who, like himself, were interested in keeping themselves informed of the developments in literature, art and science. This group called itself the Junto and was the forebear of the American Philosophical Society, the oldest scientific society on the American continent. Before this group, he performed with an electrical tube sent to him by his friend, Mr. Peter Collinson, of London, various experiments and began the varied observations which brought him world-wide fame. Frank-

lin's pleasure is shown in a portion of his letter to Mr. Collinson: "I never was before engaged in any study that so totally engrossed my attention and my time as this has lately done, for, what with making experiments when I can be alone, and repeating them to my friends and acquaintances who, from the novelty of the thing, come continually to see them, I have, during some months past, had little leisure for anything else."

He began his electrical studies with the investigation of the discharging power of points. He took a metal ball four inches in diameter and placed it on the mouth of a clean dry glass bottle. This was his insulated conductor. By a silk thread he suspended a cork ball perhaps one quarter of an inch in diameter, so that it could rest against the side of the metal ball. When the metal ball was electrified, the cork ball was virgorously repelled, to a distance of four or five inches. Franklin found that, when in this state, if a long, sharply pointed bodkin, at a distance of six or eight inches be pointed at the metal ball, the repulsion upon the cork ball at once vanishes and the cork falls back to the metal. If the bodkin be held by an insulating handle of sealing wax, it loses the power of discharging the metal ball, but regains this power immediately when the ball is grounded by touching.

Franklin then attached a needle, or bodkin, with a sharp point, to the metal ball and found at once that no repelling force could be exerted upon the cork ball because, as he said, no charge could be kept upon the ball to which the needle was attached. The charge which would otherwise have accumulated on the metal ball was "thrown off" by the point. He repeated his experiments in the dark

and found that the needle was often surrounded by a glow of light.

Franklin at once turned his talent for usefulness upon this study. Other experiments which cannot be described, for want of space, showed many evidences of similarities between the electric sparks which he could produce and the lightning discharge of nature. He surmised that the two actions had the same origin—electricity—and differed only in the magnitudes of the quantities involved. Recalling the action of the pointed needle in making it impossible to keep a charge on the metal ball, he asked if, similarly, charges of electricity on the earth or the clouds, could not be drawn off harmlessly by a pointed rod placed on a height and conductingly connected to the earth? This was the origin of his famous kite experiment. He meant to erect what we should call a lightning rod on a steeple which was to be built. Growing weary of the delay, he took a kite with him to higher ground, and as a thunder storm approached, sent up his kite. When the silk cord by which it was held became wet from the rain, he could, and did, draw electric sparks from the brass key which was tied near the lower end of the cord.

These two sets of Franklin's experiments have been described at length in order to show, as clearly as may be, the way in which his mind worked, and the method by which his results were attained. The method governed all of his scientific thinking, changing in detail with the special problem, but always, in essence, the same.

Franklin seems to have carried on his studies in physical science, natural philosophy, wholly during the period 1747 to 1756, and then to have been driven off from this

work, which he described as the most absorbing of his life, by the increasing demands of public life and civic obligation.

What a grist he ground out in that short period! The effect of color upon the absorption of light and heat, and the discharging action of points upon electric charges, already described. In rapid succession new and striking phenomena were observed for the first time by this fundamental physicist. The distribution of the charges in a Leyden jar or condenser; the Pennsylvania fireplace—the so-called Franklin stove—for the more efficient burning of wood and the more healthy heating of houses; the proper construction of chimneys, to assure that they would not smoke; the effect of evaporation upon the bodily temperature, and sage advice about the use of fluids by laborers in the sun; the invention of double spectacles, or, as we call them, "bifocal glasses."

The discoveries by Franklin indicated above are those which may be described as having been made by experiment. They were in the realm of experimental physics, and even in what is today termed applied science. But they constitute but a portion of Franklin's contribution to our learning concerning the physical world.

He applied his great powers of mind and reasoning to the answering of the great questions concerning the origins and causes of natural phenomena, the thunder storm, the aurora borealis, the water-spout, fogs off Newfoundland, light and electricity. His answers were fundamentally important extensions of theoretical physics and were in close agreement with modern theories and explanations, really amazingly so.

Cyclones and water-spouts received Franklin's critical attention and also a correct explanation. Water-spouts, he said, are due to rapidly whirling columns of air passing over bodies of water. As the air whirls, it is thrown outward by centrifugal force so that a partial vacuum is produced in the interior, "which cannot be filled through the sides, the whirling air, as an arch, preventing. It must then press in at the open ends. The greatest pressure inwards must be at the lower end, the greatest weight of the surrounding atmosphere being there. The air, entering, rises within and carries up dust, leaves and even heavier bodies that happen in its way as the eddy, or whirl, passes over land.

"If it passes over water, the weight of the surrounding atmosphere forces up the water into the vacuity, part of which, by degrees, joins with the whirling air, and adding weight, and receiving accelerated motion, recedes still further from the center, or axis, of the trump, as the pressure lessens. Thus these eddies may be whirlwinds at land, water-spouts at sea."

One is greatly struck by the fearlessness of Franklin in his studies with the lightning rod, by means of which he could draw off electric charges almost whenever a thunder storm appeared. After the "kite experiment" had shown him the electric character of lightning, he erected in his yard a permanent rod which extended up into the air and was sharply pointed. This rod was connected to an "electric chimes," a device by which bells were made to sound whenever the rod became electrically charged. Apparently, the members of the household had orders to run to the rod whenever the bells were heard to ring and

to draw off into Leyden jars, or condensers, some of the charge on the rod. The charges thus drawn off were subsequently studied by Franklin, who reported, concerning the character, or sign, of these charges, "that the clouds of a thunder gust are most commonly in a negative state of electricity, but sometimes in a positive state."

The wonder is that no one of the Franklin household thus playing with the Franklin rod suffered any injury from the lightning.

Franklin's explanation of the aurora borealis is ingenious and interesting. In attempting to explain the origin of the electricity of thunder gusts, he believed that the charges produced were caused by the friction against the moisture of the air of the warm, lighter air which rose. He thought that when the air over the warm seas became heated, it rose and streamed towards the north or south. The cold air of the north, or south, streamed in to take the place of the air which had risen, so that a continuing circulation took place. The air was always heavily moisture-laden, so there was much friction between the rising air and the water vapor, therefore much electricity was generated which was carried along by the moving air. When rain or snow fell, these charges were carried to the earth and, if the surface of the earth were conducting, these charges combined with, and were neutralized by, the electricity of the ground. But if the earth were covered by ice, which is a non-conductor, these charges could not escape and were held on the ice and accumulated there. Now the air extends only a certain distance above the earth's surface; beyond that there is an almost perfect vacuum which conducts electricity. "So," said Frank-

lin, "the charge accumulated in the arctic, on the ice covering, gets up into this space and there produces, as electricity in motion, the phenomena of the aurora."

Thus Franklin went on through life, turning his searching mind upon the phenomena of nature and attempting to give explanations of them which satisfied his sense and judgment. Often he was wrong, sometimes he was quite right, and, as we think today, modern in his opinions. Thus he explained why fogs were prevalent off Newfoundland. He showed how the boundaries of the Gulf Stream might be located by the temperature of the water as shown by a thermometer, and issued directions to mariners in accordance with which they could get the benefit of the flow of the Gulf Stream, if they were headed in one direction, or could avoid combating it, if they were oppositely directed; he studied the nature of light and set himself against "the corpuscular theory" of light proposed by the great Newton.

His theory of the nature of electricity and of electrical actions brought him the most fame as a scientist and proved to be the most useful of all his theoretical contributions. In the formulation of his theory, he devised the system of electrical nomenclature which we use today, so far as electrical charges as such are concerned. We should be a little happier today if he had called positive that which he actually called negative, and had called negative that which he actually called positive, electrically.

Franklin regarded electricity as a "subtile substance" which permeated all matter. Matter was a "spunge" for electricity, behaving toward that fluid as the ordinary

sponge does towards water. When matter possessed just the normal amount of the electric fluid, it showed no signs of charge; it was surcharged. If more were added to it, it was said to be positively charged, while if any electricity were taken from the body, it was negatively charged, or had a negative charge. There was but one kind of electricity, according to Franklin's notion, not two kinds as we now think. A positive charge was only an excess of the electric fluid while negative charge was a deficiency, or lack, of the fluid. In any electrical transaction, as in the rubbing of glass with silk, or sealing wax with wool, some electricity passes from one body, leaving it negatively charged to the other body, making it positively charged. The total amount of electricity remains unchanged; it is merely differently distributed. Franklin believed that the charge, whatever its sign, was distributed through the whole volume of the body, conductor or non-conductor, which bore it. He seemed to have no idea of anything like the concentration of the charge upon the surface only of the body which actually occurs. There were, naturally, inaccuracies in Franklin's theory and in his ideas, yet they were the forerunners of modern theories of electricity and the foundation upon which the modern structure rests.

Franklin felt an absorbing interest in medical theories and in the practice of medicine, perhaps because of his unfailing desire to apply knowledge for the benefit of mankind. Naturally he queried whether electricity could be applied to medicine, or in treatments, helpfully. Like Cunaeus of Leyden, the discoverer of the action of a condenser, Franklin hoped by "electrizing" a dose of medi-

cine to make it more beneficial to the absorber. Like Cunaeus, also, he succeeded in giving many shocks to the patients, but finally was convinced of the lack of any additional curative action due to the electrification.

He tried to determine if any beneficial effects were experienced by those ill with rheumatism or sciatica or similar ailment, from "electrical" treatments. At first he had a lively hope that real benefits would accrue from the electrical shocks which he caused to be administered, but was at the last convinced of the uselessness of any treatments of this general character which he could give.

To appreciate the magnitude of Franklin's accomplishments in science, one must picture to oneself the physical conditions under which he lived, and the absence of all scholars who could refute his errors or stimulate his scientific thinking. There was no apparatus ready at hand; there were no books of reference; no journals. He was a pioneer in a scientific wilderness, as others were in the primitive Colonies. Yet he was fundamentally fruitful of results, of theories propounded and of crucially important experiments performed. Franklin was America's first natural philosopher and must ever be ranked with her greatest.

The author of "Poor Richard" was no metaphysical speculator. If he is to be classified as a *mental* philosopher at all, he must certainly be classed as the original American Pragmatist.

Franklin was, however, of an extremely philosophical cast of mind. He had a fearless love of truth and a basic honesty, which manifested themselves in the seemingly pointless repetitions of his experiments, made again and

again and again, in order to assure himself that he had made no mistake. He seemed to care only for the result and to have no pride of authorship. He was painstakingly careful and willing always, even eager, to correct his mistakes. He was a great scientist, by whatever standards we test him, and he gave to the world of science knowledge of lasting importance and novelty. In any list of the great original scientists of the world, Franklin's name must always appear. For fundamental importance, for daring imagination, and for successful endeavor, he must always be ranked with the leaders. What a man! What a mind!

# Franklin, the Natural Philosopher

*American Institute of Electrical Engineers*

By Michael I. Pupin

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*Professor of Electro-Mechanics at Columbia University*

Franklin was the leader of a new scientific movement which was destined to reveal to man a new physical reality, the reality of electricity in motion. Matter in motion obeying Newton's laws was the physical reality revealed by the great efforts of the natural philosophers of the seventeenth century. Their efforts started with Galileo and ended with Newton. This physical reality was the gift which the science of the seventeenth century gave to mankind. The second physical reality, electricity in motion, was the gift to mankind of the succeeding century which started with Franklin and ended with Faraday.

Benjamin Franklin organized the scientific body which finally resulted in the American Philosophical Society. The word "philosophical," inserted in the name of this society, can be traced to Newton's great essay "Philosophiæ Naturalis Principia Mathematica." Franklin, and even Michael Faraday, a hundred years later, called themselves Natural Philosophers and not scientists. In this they followed the example of Newton, who in Franklin's time was the beginning and the end of higher endeavors in science. Newton belonged to the seventeenth century, but he remained the great leader in science during the eighteenth century. No natural philosopher of

that century could expect to attract much serious attention who in his inquiries departed from the rigorous mathematical methods of the Newtonian school. The Franklin stove, the Franklin rod, and the Franklin electrical plate, had nothing in common with the Newtonian school of natural philosophy, and that may explain why most of Franklin's communications to the Royal Society, relating to his electrical researches, were not considered sufficiently important to find a place in the Transactions of that Society. The fact that the Royal Society presented its gold medal to Franklin for his electrical researches should not mislead us. The medal was brought from England and presented to Franklin by Denny, the new Governor of Pennsylvania. As soon as he had reached Philadelphia and a few minutes after the presentation of the Royal Society Medal, Denny confided to Franklin that he needed the latter's assistance in the dispute of the people of Pennsylvania with the proprietaries. Franklin, the natural philosopher, kept the medal, but Franklin, the statesman and patriot, refused to side with Denny and the proprietaries. The distinguished honor conferred upon Franklin by the Royal Society did not influence his mental attitude either in his service to natural philosophy or in his service to his fellow citizens. The second service, the service to his country, was, in his opinion, the higher service. In this respect, the life of Joseph Henry reminds us of Benjamin Franklin. When in 1846 Joseph Henry left his research laboratory at Princeton to become the first secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, he, like Franklin, considered service to his country as more important than his service to science.

There is another element in Joseph Henry's activity which recalls the activity of Franklin. It was due to Henry's efforts, supported by his personal friend, President Lincoln, that the National Academy of Sciences was organized and received its Congressional Charter in 1863. Its mission was to cultivate among the people of the United States higher endeavors in sciences and the useful arts. This movement was animated by the same spirit which inspired Franklin to start the movement for higher scientific activity in the American Colonies, and it culminated in the birth of the American Philosophical Society and of the University of Pennsylvania. What Franklin started in 1750 Joseph Henry took up again over a hundred years later. Natural philosophy in the heads of Franklin and of Joseph Henry had a double mission: One was the search for the eternal truth, and the other was the service to the country. The man who by training and discipline becomes an efficient servant to the eternal truth will, in all probability, prove himself an efficient servant to his commonwealth. That was the belief of Franklin and of Joseph Henry. The late Professor Rowland of Johns Hopkins used to say that the mental attitude, acquired in a scientific research laboratory, can tackle and solve not only scientific but also social and political problems. Rowland must have had Franklin, the natural philosopher, in his mind when he made that bold statement.

There is another element of resemblance between Franklin, the natural philosopher, and Joseph Henry, the physicist of Princeton College. It was Henry's experiments with the discharges of the Leyden jar which, in

1842, gave the first suggestion of the future radio art. Franklin's electrical experiments and speculations can all be traced to his study of the discharges of the Leyden jar. This study suggested to him not only the electrical nature of lightning, but also one of the two fundamental concepts in the modern electro-magnetic theory. Franklin was the first to call attention to the function of the insulator between the conducting plates of the jar, and this remarkably novel suggestion accomplished wonders in the minds of Faraday and of Maxwell, a hundred years later. It is not surprising that the Leyden jar, the instrumentality of Franklin and Joseph Henry, supplied, in the hands of Hertz, the experimental demonstration of the meaning of the electro-magnetic theory. Willard Gibbs, of Yale, is reported to have said that the genius of a natural philosopher is proportional to the importance of the problems which he picks out for study. If this opinion is correct, then the scientific genius of Franklin was certainly very great, because he selected the problem of the Leyden jar for his study, and he certainly solved it as far as that problem could be solved in those days.

# Franklin, the Meteorologist

*United States Weather Bureau*

At the Franklin bi-centennial celebration in 1906, the late Professor Cleveland Abbe, of the United States Weather Bureau, referred to Franklin as "the first meteorologist of America."

"It is true," he said, "that we have records made by observers of the weather before he began his scientific activity, but the progress of meteorology has been such that we have now learned to put the philosophical investigator, that is to say, the man of research, far above the mere observer and recorder. Considered as a mere chronicle of passing events, the study of the weather dates from the earliest ages; but considered as a rational investigation into its ultimate physical causes, or as the logical application of well established principles to the elucidation of unexplained phenomena, or as a system of research checked at every step by observations and experiments, the modern physical meteorology or theoretical meteorology, or dynamic meteorology deals exclusively with force or energy, and dates from the days of Galileo, Sir Isaac Newton, Huyghens, Descartes, Boyle and Gay-Lussac, with whom Benjamin Franklin was a worthy co-laborer. If he had done nothing else but his work in meteorology, that alone would have entitled him to the highest rank. On this subject he thought and wrote for sixty years, from his diary of 1726 to his long-range forecasts of 1786."

Franklin was a constant observer of the weather and made a number of improvements in meteorological in-

struments. His outstanding achievements in meteorology were, however, his partial anticipation of the "law of storms," his invention of the lightning rod, his demonstration by the famous kite experiment of the electrical nature of lightning, and his study of the great fog of 1783.

In the year 1743 Franklin was prevented from viewing an eclipse of the moon in Philadelphia because the sky was covered with clouds from a northeast storm, yet his brother saw the eclipse in Boston, where the storm did not arrive until some hours after the event was over. This episode led him, as early as 1747, to formulate the opinion that storms which begin with winds from the northeast travel in the opposite direction—viz., from southwest. The fact that such storms are really great whirlwinds was not recognized until long after the beginning of the nineteenth century. The first complete demonstration of this fact was published by Franklin's fellow-countryman, W. C. Redfield, in the year 1831.

Franklin's observations on the storm just mentioned are set forth as follows in a letter written from London in 1760:

> "About twenty years ago, a few more or less, we were to have an eclipse of the moon at Philadelphia, on a Friday evening, about nine o'clock. I intended to observe it, but was prevented by a northeast storm, which came on about seven, with thick clouds as usual, that quite obscured the whole hemisphere. Yet when the post brought us the Boston newspaper, giving an account of the effect of the same storm in those parts, I found the beginning of the eclipse had been well observed there, though Boston lies northeast of Philadelphia about 400 miles. This puzzled me, because the storm began with us so soon as to prevent any observa-

tion, and being a northeast storm, I imagined it must have begun rather sooner in places farther to the northeast than it did at Philadelphia. I therefore mentioned it in a letter to my brother, who lived at Boston; and he informed me the storm did not begin with them till near eleven o'clock, so that they had a good observation of the eclipse; and upon comparing all other accounts I received from the several colonies, of the time of beginning of the same storm, and since that of other storms of the same kind, I found the beginning to be always later the farther northeastward."

The idea that a storm might travel in a direction opposite to that of the wind was a novelty in Franklin's time, and his discovery was the first step toward a knowledge of the great whirling wind systems that we now call cyclones and anticyclones.

Franklin's suggestion that led to the invention of the lightning rod is contained in a paper entitled "Opinions and Conjectures, concerning the Properties and Effects of the electrical Matter, arising from Experiments and Observations, made at Philadelphia, 1749," contained in a letter addressed to Peter Collinson, Esq., F. R. S., London, dated July 29, 1750. It is as follows:

"To determine the question, whether the clouds that contain lightning are electrified or not, I would propose an experiment to be try'd where it may be done conveniently. On the top of some high tower or steeple, place a kind of centry-box big enough to contain a man and an electrical stand. From the middle of the stand let an iron rod rise and pass bending out of the door, and then upright 20 or 30 feet, pointed very sharp at the end. If the electrical stand be kept clean and dry, a man standing on it when such clouds are passing low, might be electrified and afford

> sparks, the rod drawing fire to him from a cloud. If any danger to the man should be apprehended (though I think there would be none) let him stand on the floor of his box, and now and then bring near to the rod the loop of a wire that has one end fastened to the leads, he holding it by a wax handle; so the sparks, if the rod is electrified, will strike from the rod to the wire, and not affect him."

This and other papers of Franklin's were presented to the Royal Society, but received scant attention from that learned body. However, they were published in England in pamphlet form, with a preface by Dr. Fothergill, and aroused so much interest that they ran through five editions. A copy happened to fall into the hands of Buffon, in France, who persuaded D'Alibard to translate them into French. Their publication in that language led to a great deal of controversy. They were later translated into Italian, German, and Latin.

The experiment proposed by Franklin was performed with brilliant success, by D'Alibard, on a hill at Marly-la-Ville, where a pointed rod of iron 40 feet high had been erected for the purpose of carrying it into execution. When a thundercloud passed over the rod on May 10, 1752, between 2 and 3 o'clock in the afternoon, the persons set by D'Alibard to watch it had drawn near "and attracted from it sparks of fire, perceiving the same kind of commotions as in the common electrical experiments." A week later the experiment was successfully repeated by M. de Lor with a rod erected at his house in Paris. When news of these experiments reached England the Royal Society quickly changed its attitude toward Franklin's ideas and caused his papers to be published in the

Philosophical Transactions. Franklin also was elected a fellow of the society, and awarded its Copley gold medal in 1753.

Before the news of the success achieved by D'Alibard and de Lor reached Franklin he himself had conducted a similar experiment, "though made in a different and more easy manner."

"This experiment," says Mr. William Cabell Bruce, "has become one of the veriest commonplaces of physical science. It was performed, when a thunder gust was coming on, in a field near Philadelphia, with such simple materials as a silk kite, topped off with a foot or more of sharp pointed wire, and controlled by a twine string, equipped with a key for casting off the electric sparks, and ending in a silk ribbon to secure the safety of the hand that held it. The whole construction is set out in a letter written to Collinson by Franklin shortly after the incident, in which, with his usual modesty, the latter describes the kite as if he had had nothing to do with it. Something like the feelings of Sir Isaac Newton, when the falling apple brought to his ear the real music of the spheres, must have been those of Franklin, when the loose filaments of twine bristled up stiffly, as if stirred by some violated instinct of wild freedom, and the stream of sparks from the key told him that he was right in supposing that the mysterious and appalling agency, which had for centuries been associated in the human mind with the resistless wrath of Omnipotence, was but the same subtle fluid that had so often lit up his electrical apparatus with its playful coruscations."

In the summer of 1753 Franklin erected on his house

in Philadelphia the only lightning rod then in existence. This rod, which was of iron, extended 5 feet into the ground, and had a sharp point raised 7 or 8 feet above the roof. It was evidently intended by its inventor to serve both as a protection against lightning, and as a means of observing the effects of atmospheric electricity. Franklin's confidence in the protective properties of his lightning rod was such that he persuaded several of his friends to allow him to erect similar rods on their houses in order that he might have a better opportunity to observe their effects. After many months of patient waiting his confidence in his new device was found to be justified. During a severe thunderstorm several persons plainly saw lightning strike a rod on the house of a Mr. West. The flash was carried off without damage to the building, and the only observable evidences of its passage were a slight melting of the rod at its point and a disturbance of the earth about the place where it entered the ground, which was afterwards found to be very dry.

During the summer of 1783 a constant fog prevailed over Europe and a large part of North America. It was followed by a very severe winter, and Franklin wrote a paper in which he argued that the cold was due to the sun's rays having been shut off from the earth during the warm season by the fog. On the strength of this hypothesis he is supposed, from allusions contained in two letters addressed to him by his sister, to have predicted that the winter of 1786-1787 would also be unusually severe. These were the "long-range forecasts" mentioned by Professor Abbe.

Franklin had, however, no sympathy with the weather

prognostications of cranks and charlatans, based on the notions of astrology. Although, in accordance with custom, he included weather predictions in his "Poor Richard's Almanack," he took pains in the same publication to let it be known that he did not intend these announcements to be taken seriously. Thus in the preface to the "Almanack" for 1738 he makes "Mystriss Saunders" apologize for the imperfections of the work, owing to the sudden departure of the husband, "poor Dick." She adds: "Upon looking over the months I see he has put in abundance of foul weather this year, and therefore I have scattered here and there where I could find room some fair, pleasant, sunshiny weather, for the good women to dry their clothes in. If it does not come to pass according to my desire, I have shown my good will, however, and I hope they will take it in good part."

# Franklin, the Patron Saint of the Music Industries

*Music Industries Chamber of Commerce*

By Dewey M. Dixon

*Assistant General Manager*

Yet not these themes alone thy thoughts command,
Each softer science owns thy fostering hand;
Aided by thee, Urania's heav'nly art,
With finer raptures charms the feeling heart;
Th' Harmonica shall join the sacréd choir,
Fresh transports kindle, and new joys inspire.

Nathaniel Evans—1772.
To Benjamin Franklin, Esq., LL.D.

Benjamin Franklin, in his "Autobiography" alluding to his father, Josiah Franklin, describes him as "ingenious, could draw prettily, was skilled a little in music, and had a clear pleasing voice, so that when he played psalm tunes on his violin and sung withal, as he sometimes did in an evening after the business of the day was over, it was extremely agreeable to hear." Plain, sometimes even blunt, was Franklin. Without frills or adornment he sketches this scene of rugged home life; his father surrounded by his family, in the long winter evenings, seated, perhaps, before the great fire, playing his violin and singing of David and Jacob and the heavenly hosts. "I will sing with the spirit, and I will sing with the understanding also." Out of this simple atmosphere young Ben absorbed the qualities that made him instrumentalist, singer, critic, lyricist and inventor of the Harmonica.

The Harmonica, which, by the way, bears no relation whatever to the mouth organ, is defined as a "generic term applied to musical instruments in which sound is produced by friction upon glass bells." The credit for the invention of musical glasses is given to Richard Puckeridge, an Irishman, who first played the instrument in public in Dublin in 1743, and the following year in England. There were several names for this instrument, but the most common were Verrillon and Glasspiel, the latter being the term invented by the Germans.

The equipment for the Glasspiel was simple. Eighteen beer glasses were arranged on a cloth-covered board, and when it was necessary to change the pitch, water was poured in. Harmony could then be obtained by striking the glasses with two long wooden sticks shaped like spoons. Anyone can make a Glasspiel by securing eighteen heavy glass tumblers and arranging them in like manner.

That the Glasspiel was becoming popular in Europe is shown by the adoption of the instrument by Christoph Willibald von Gluck, father of modern opera. Gluck had acquired a reputation of unrelenting zeal in introducing new instruments and new effects. One of his projects was the introduction of the kettle-drums and cymbals into the symphony orchestra. Small wonder, then, that when he took up the study of the musical glasses all Europe began to observe them with respectful attention. He sometimes played a concerto on twenty-six drinking glasses, accompanied with "the whole band," and anything that could be played on a violin or harpsichord, he claimed, could be played on this novel instrument.

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FRANKLIN PLAYING THE HARMONICA,
HIS OWN INVENTION

Franklin first heard the Glasses when he visited London in 1757. The exquisite tone produced by Puckeridge and Gluck so captivated him that he straightway set to work to embody the principle in a mechanical instrument similar to the piano-forte or clavichord. He found that by drawing his moistened finger slowly around the edge of a tumbler he could produce a sustained tone, varied by the size of the tumbler or the quantity of water inside it. If this could be done mechanically, he reasoned, it would enable the operator to give more thought to his tone and effects.

In a letter to John Baptist Beccaria, of Turin, in 1762, he describes the accomplishment of his dream. "I wished," said Franklin, "to see the glasses disposed in a more convenient form and brought together in a narrower compass so as to admit of a greater number of tones, and all within reach of hand to a person sitting before the instrument." He then explains that the glass is blown as near as possible in the form of hemispheres or bowls, thirty-seven being used for three octaves with all their semi-tones. These were tapered regularly from the largest, nine inches, to the smallest, which was three inches. Tuning required much grinding and polishing, the harpsichord being used as a standard of pitch. Franklin warns that a great deal of care is attendant upon this operation for, "if you go below your required tone, there is no sharpening it again but by grinding somewhat off the brim, which will afterwards require polishing, and thus increase the trouble."

The glass bowls thus arranged and tuned, it was necessary to prepare a spindle, a piece of hard, round iron

which was an inch in diameter at one end, tapering to a quarter of an inch at the other. The glasses were then placed upright on the spindle and the whole placed in a case about three feet long. Upon a protruding end of this rod a wheel was fixed which served as a sort of fly, resembling in this respect the sewing machine of today, although instead of a belt the foot treadle was fastened directly to the wheel by a wooden stick. The humble spinning-wheel doubtless supplied Franklin with this idea.

The largest glass is G, a little below the range of the average human voice. The smallest glass is also G, just three octaves higher. Glasses are distinguished through their markings. In some they were painted with the seven prismatic colors, beginning with red and continuing with orange, yellow, green, blue, indigo and purple.

"This instrument," Franklin continues, "is played upon by sitting before the middle of the set of glasses as before the keys of a harpsichord, turning them with the feet, and wetting them now and then with a spunge and clean water. The fingers should be first a little soaked in water, and quite free from all greasiness; a little fine chalk upon them is sometimes useful to make them catch the glass and bring out the tone more readily."

Closing his letter Franklin describes the qualities of this musical invention so close to his heart: "The advantages of this instrument are, that its tones are incomparably sweet beyond those of any other; that they may be swelled and softened at pleasure by stronger or weaker pressures of the finger, and continued to any length; and that the instrument, being once well tuned, never again wants tuning.

"In honour of your musical language, [Italian], I have borrowed from it the name of this instrument, calling it the Armonica." Since that time, however, it has been known as the Harmonica.

Why has not this invention, like the piano-forte, come down to us in this age of music? Several reasons have been given. For instance, Oscar G. Sonneck in his book, "Suum Cuique," reasons that it became obsolete through its harrowing effect on the nerves of the performer. He gives, as his example, Miss Marianne Davies, a relative of Franklin, who successfully performed on the Harmonica for many years. She appeared with her sister, Cecilia, a singer, in England and created a sensation. In Vienna she was received with the utmost approbation, and Metastasio, the court poet, in a letter described the beautiful tone of the instrument and the admirable manner in which Cecelia blended her voice with it, "so as to render it difficult," he explains, "to distinguish the one from the other." According to Mr. Sonneck, who has written an admirable history of Dr. Franklin's invention, Miss Davies' nerves became so seriously affected by her performance on the Harmonica, that she was compelled to retire from her profession.

If Mr. Sonneck is correct in his reason for the retirement of Miss Davies, although Franklin himself played the instrument for years without ill effects, is it not because only a very crude state of development had been reached? If the tone had been softened somewhat by a modern improvement, such as placing felt on the spindle that held the glasses or by applying felt stops to deaden or modify the sound, could the ill effects have been lessened? In

1786 Francis Hopkinson, signer of the Declaration of Independence and close friend of Franklin, endeavored to arrange a keyboard for the instrument. Perhaps if he had persisted the Harmonica would be taking its place today in the symphony orchestra along with the harp and the organ. Some day an ingenious inventor may bring undying fame to his name by completing the work begun by Franklin. This day might be hastened by public performances on the instrument, which would help somewhat to quicken the interest of the present generation.

Allen Glen, who has written an account of the Harmonica in his work on Colonial Mansions, speaks of one Fithian who was a tutor at Nomini Hall, the old southern home of the Carters of Virginia, and quotes from a journal of the tutor, wherein he writes:

> Wednesday, 22 Dec. (1773) . . . Evening. Mr. Carter spent in playing on the Harmonica; It is the first time I have heard the Instrument. The Music is charming! The notes are clear and inexpressibly soft; they swell and are inexpressibly grand; and either it is because the sounds are new, and therefore pleased me, or it is the most captivating instrument I have ever heard. The sounds very much resemble the human voice, and in my opinion they far exceed even the swelling organ.

To "exceed even the swelling organ" is a tribute that one cannot pass lightly. We in this age have undoubtedly been denied an instrument that afforded an unfailing source of pleasure to our forbears.

Thomas Jefferson heard the Harmonica in Paris and expressed the opinion that its success would be "the greatest present which has been made to the musical world

this century, not excepting the piano-forte." Leading symphony orchestras in Europe adopted it and Johann Gottlieb Naumann, a well known composer of the eighteenth century, played it and wrote six sonatas for it. Mozart and even Beethoven contributed to its history by composing several pieces to be played on it. One may find a model of the Franklin type in the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York. Another is owned at Princeton, N. J., by Mrs. Malcolm MacLaren. Many specimens are exhibited by the museums for musical instruments in Europe, and one type by Emanuel Pohl, a Bohemian maker, is preserved in the Victoria and Albert Museum in London.

Let us leave Franklin's invention for the present, however, and endeavor to discover other fields of music in which his fertile mind loved to roam.

As an instrumentalist, Franklin entertained his friends by playing on the harp, the guitar, and the violin. It is also said that he played the violoncello. He once expressed his willingness to teach the guitar to a friend. If she had accepted we would also have Franklin, the music teacher, but it is not recorded that she ever became his pupil.

The National Bureau for the Advancement of Music in New York once published a group of ballads or songs written by Franklin. As an introduction they said, "Interest in the little-known musical side of Benjamin Franklin has resulted in gathering the lyrics of several songs written by him. Four of them are given here. He is said, also, to have written a Masonic song, now in the Masonic Library at Philadelphia." Then followed the "Sailor

Song," the music for which had been chosen from "The Beggar's Opera"; "The Mother Country" with music by Dr. Arne, also Franklin's famous "My Plain Country Joan," set to music taken from "The Beggar's Opera," and finally "Fair Venus Calls" with music by E. S. Phelps. Copies of this publication were scattered all over the United States and contributed greatly to the public knowledge of Franklin's ability as a ballad writer and lyricist.

"My Plain Country Joan," which was written as an encomium to his wife, is quite long, but the first verse runs along as follows:

> Of their Chloes and Phyllises poets may prate,
> I sing my plain country Joan,
> These twelve years my wife, still the joy of my life,
> Blest day that I made her my own.

"The Mother Country" was written by Franklin on the occasion of his second visit to England, and is obviously a bit of a joke on that fair country, which at that time was preparing to spank the Colonies soundly for their disobedience.

> We have an old mother that peevish is grown;
> She snubs us like children that scarce walk alone;
> She forgets we're grown up, and have sense of our own;

and then again:

> If we don't obey orders, whatever the case,
> She frowns and she chides, and she loses all patience, and
> sometimes she hits us a slap in the face.

the refrain then is sung like this:

> Which nobody can deny, deny,
> Which nobody can deny.

Before we leave Franklin, the man of music, let us look quickly at his interesting attempts at criticism. We shall find that he had some very definite ideas with regard to harmony and rhythm. It is not always easy to agree with him but it must be admitted that he gave considerable thought to the several matters reviewed by him.

In a letter to Lord Kames, of Edinburgh, in 1765, Franklin acknowledges reading the former's excellent work, "The Elements of Criticism," and informs him that he found much in it to please him. Speaking of modern music, which he apparently finds intricate and uninteresting to the unpracticed laymen, he endeavors to prove "that the pleasure artists feel in hearing much of that composed in the modern taste, is not the natural pleasure arising from melody or harmony of sounds, but of the same kind with the pleasure we feel on seeing the surprising feats of tumblers and rope-dancers, who execute difficult things." He explains that at a concert he has placed himself in a position which enabled him to see plainly the faces of the audience and has "observed no signs of pleasure in them during the performance of a great part that was admired by the performers themselves; while a plain old Scotch tune, which they [the performers] disdained, and could scarcely be prevailed on to play, gave manifest and general delight."

He defines melody as "an agreeable *succession* of sounds," and harmony as "the *coexistence* of agreeable

sounds." Amplifying this theory, he says that "since the memory is capable of retaining for some moments a perfect idea of the pitch of a past sound, so as to compare with it the pitch of a succeeding sound and judge truly of their agreement or disagreement, there may and does arise from thence a sense of harmony between the present and past sounds, equally pleasing with that between two present sounds." Then speaking of the old Scotch tunes he shows that "almost every succeeding emphatical note is a third, a fifth, an octave, or in short some note that is in concord with the preceding note. Thirds are chiefly used, which are very pleasing concords. I use the word '*emphatical*' to distinguish those notes which have a stress laid on them in singing the tune from the lighter connecting notes that serve merely like grammar articles in common speech, to tack the whole thing together."

"Farther," continues Franklin, "when we consider by whom these ancient [Scotch] tunes were composed and how they were first performed, we shall see that such harmonical successions of sounds were natural, and even necessary, in their construction. They were composed by the minstrels of those days to be played on the harp, accompanied by the voice. The harp was strung with wire which gives a sound of long continuance and had no contrivance like that in the modern harpsichord, by which the sound of the preceding could be stopped the moment a succeeding note began. To avoid actual discord it was therefore necessary that the succeeding emphatic note should be a chord with the preceding, as their sounds must exist at the same time. Hence arose that beauty in those tunes that has so long pleased and will please for-

ever though men scarce know why . . . The connoisseurs in modern music will say I have no taste, but I cannot help adding that I believe our ancestors in hearing a good song, distinctly articulated, sung to one of those tunes and accompanied by the harp, felt more real pleasure than is communicated by the generality of modern operas, exclusive of that arising from the scenery and dancing. Most tunes of late composition, not having this natural harmony united with their melody, have recourse to the artificial harmony of a bass and other accompanying parts. This support, in my opinion, the old tunes do not need and are rather confused than aided by it. Whoever has heard James Oswald play them on his violoncello will be less inclined to dispute this with me. I have more than once seen tears of pleasure in the eyes of his auditors; and yet, I think even *his* playing those tunes would please more if he gave them less modern ornament."

Peter Franklin once wrote a ballad and sent it to his brother, Benjamin, with the request that he have it set to music. Upon writing his brother about the ballad, Benjamin once more takes the opportunity of showing his preference for the old style of composition. "I think too," he wrote back, "that if you had given it to some country girl in the heart of Massachusetts, who has never heard any other than psalm tunes or 'Chevy Chase,' the 'Children in the Woods,' the 'Spanish Lady,' and such old, simple ditties, but has naturally a good ear, she might more probably have made a pleasing popular tune for you than any of our masters here." "Do not imagine," he explains later in the letter, "that I mean to depreciate the skill of our composers of music here; they are ad-

mirable at pleasing practiced ears and know how to delight one another, but in composing for songs the reigning taste seems to be quite out of nature, or rather the reverse of nature, and yet, like a torrent, hurries them all away with it; one or two perhaps only excepted."

Later on in this same letter he says, "By what I can learn of their [the ancients'] songs, the music was simple, conformed itself to the usual pronunciation of words, as to measure, cadence or emphasis, etc., never disguised and confounded language by making a long syllable short, or a short one long, when sung; their singing was only a more pleasing, because a melodious manner of speaking; it was capable of all the graces of prose oratory, while it added the pleasure of harmony. A modern song, on the contrary, neglects all the proprieties and beauties of common speech, and in their place introduces its defects and absurdities as so many graces." He then points out some of these things which he terms absurdities in a composition of Handel, "Judas Maccabeus."

And thus we have Franklin, the instrumentalist, the writer of lyrics, the critic and the inventor of that sweet-toned instrument, the Harmonica; a giant who lived in an age of giants and who stood head and shoulders above his fellows, but who could be moved to tears by the simple strains of a Scotch melody; who, although his genius led him into many another field where honor and fame richly abounded, never failed to return to his beloved music.

In 1926, on June 7—a date historic in the nation's annals—Benjamin Franklin, Patriot, was unanimously proclaimed by the Music Trades at their annual conven-

tion as "Patron Saint of the Music Industries," by the following resolution:

WHEREAS, 150 years ago today, June 7, 1776, Richard Henry Lee offered in the Continental Congress a resolution: "That these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states, and that they are absolved from allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved;" and

WHEREAS, Benjamin Franklin was one of the committee of five to draft the declaration of Independence which he later signed. On October 26, 1776, he departed as Commissioner to France where his diplomatic achievements did much to win the Revolutionary War; and

WHEREAS, Benjamin Franklin, Patriot, is endeared to numerous trades and professions, especially printers, publishers, advertising men, the electrical, optical and other groups; and

WHEREAS, Franklin was a song-writer, player on the harp, the guitar and the violin, and also invented a remarkable musical instrument, the Harmonica or glassychord, based on musical glasses;

RESOLVED: The Music Trades, Sesquicentennial year in anniversary conventions assembled, hereby pay tribute to the patriotism of Benjamin Franklin and likewise adopt him as a Patron Saint of the Music Industries of the United States.

# Franklin, the Inventor of Bifocal Lenses

*American Optometric Association*

By Thomas H. Martin

*Ex-President*

Upon the monument placed at the last resting place of an early Italian, who was credited with having invented spectacles, the pious wish was carved, "May God forgive his sins." Both he and his successors have much for which to answer! Just whether he paid for his temerity with his life or died a natural death is not well authenticated, but that many who gave expression to their vision and genius did meet with violent opposition and even paid for their enterprise with the loss of life or liberty is a sad commentary upon our ancestors.

Some valuable additions to the field of science came through accident, as in the case of the telescope, but most of them came through the discontent of someone, like Benjamin Franklin, who was unwilling to suffer the restrictions placed by existing conditions, although they had been accepted as insurmountable for many generations.

Dr. Franklin, late in life, began to notice that print no longer seemed to be as distinct as it had been in his earlier years. Acting upon the hint that nature thus gave him, he went to his favorite optician and was supplied with a pair of glasses suited to his requirements.

The modern spectacle was a product of the later years of the thirteenth century. In its construction only convex lenses were used and its use was confined exclusively

FRANKLIN AND HIS BIFOCAL LENSES, WHICH HE INVENTED

to those who, by reason of advancing years, found it difficult to read print, or to discern small objects at close range. Equipped with such a pair of glasses, Dr. Franklin settled down with keen delight to pursue his reading and studies with the satisfaction of seeing things as they were, and without undue effort. He had conquered old age—at least in so far as his sight was concerned. His happiness seemed complete.

But another trouble arose, for while Franklin could easily see to read with his glasses on his face, he found that objects even a short distance away were in obscurity. He could not see the face of a clock at the other side of the room, the faces of those with whom he talked were blurred, and he could not take a step with assurance.

This was by no means a new condition. It had been the bane of spectacles ever since they came into use; but other men had regarded the nuisance as one that could not be remedied and had submitted to the necessity of adjusting spectacles to their faces when they wished to see something close at hand, and removing them in order to see more distant objects. It was a condition and not a theory that confronted them, and each did the best he could under the handicap.

The Franklin family in Boston had been eminently pious, and it is not improbable that the youthful Franklin was instructed in the reward that awaited those who overcame, and all through his life he was engaged in overcoming; so when this difficulty presented itself, he at once tried to overcome it and succeeded.

Franklin reasoned that, if he could see without lenses anything that was far away, he would be able to see

through plane glass with equal clarity. If, therefore, he had a portion of each rim supplied with a piece of plane glass and the remainder with a section of a lens with the necessary focal power for reading, he could see both near and far without having to remove his glasses. Franklin also realized that when he wished to look away he raised his eyes and naturally lowered them for the purpose of reading; hence he had the plane glass placed in the upper portion of each rim and the lens in the lower part.

The contrivance was a complete success. Franklin had once more solved a problem and, as usual, was better off than before the encounter. In a letter dated May 23, 1785, Franklin wrote: "By this means, as I wear my spectacles constantly, I have only to move my eyes up or down as I want to see distinctly far or near, the proper glasses being always ready. This I find more particularly convenient since my being in France, the glasses that serve me best at table to see what I eat, not being the best to see the faces of those on the other side of the table who speak to me; and when one's ears are not well accustomed to the sounds of a language, a sight of the movements in the features of him that speaks helps to explain; so that I understand French better by the help of my spectacles."

Franklin, following his invariable custom, did not patent his idea, but his discovery was allowed to lapse into obscurity for many decades thereafter. There was no restriction, however, on any optician who wished to make such lenses.

Franklin's homely, split bifocal is no longer used, but who can estimate the value of this contribution to the

scientific world? What immeasurable advantage it has been to those who are engaged in public life, whether as speakers who must see their notes and at the same time note the impression that they are making as indicated by the faces of their audience; or as men of affairs discussing important transactions, who must keep track of conditions and prices as they appear upon a prepared schedule and at the same time desire to have an unobstructed view of the countenance of the client or salesman!

Franklin's bifocal was followed by the slightly better looking cement variety and finally by the invisible and nearly invisible double vision lenses that give ability to sweep the horizon and, in an instant, examine minute items at less than arm's length. But whatever improvement has been made or whatever advancement shall be possible, the credit for being the pioneer belongs to Benjamin Franklin. Of him, as of a patriarch of old, it may be truly said, "He being dead, yet speaketh."

At the Indianapolis convention of the American Optometric Association Dr. Franklin was rightly made the official "Patron Saint" of optometrists.

At the 1929 convention, held in Philadelphia, the delegates made a formal pilgrimage to the grave, Fifth and Arch Streets, there to pay further homage to the memory of Dr. Franklin.

# Franklin, the Father of Daylight Saving

*National Daylight Saving Association*

By Marcus M. Marks
*President*

It is a privilege for me to yield to Benjamin Franklin, whom I consider the greatest genius of American life, the title so generally given to me, namely, "Father of Daylight Saving."

It was Franklin who first called attention to the fact that we sleep during the bright morning hours of summer, when it would be so much better for us to be up and about, whereas during at least one hour of evening we use artificial light for working and reading, when we should be asleep. He expressed himself in these words: "In walking through the Strand and Fleet Street one morning at seven o'clock, I observed there was not one shop open, tho' it had been daylight and the sun up, above three hours; the inhabitants of London chusing to live much by candle-light, and sleep by sunshine, and yet often complain, a little absurdly, of the duty on candles, and the high price of tallow."

In a letter which Franklin wrote while he was in Paris, he expresses his surprise that so clever a people should have lived so long by the smoky, unwholesome and enormously expensive light of candles, when they might have had the pure light of the sun for nothing.

The farmers of the world never had this foolish habit of wasting sunshine. They were wiser, more economical

and more independent. They were not tied down by the fixed conventions of complicated social life. They always arose earlier in summer than in winter, taking advantage of the freshness and brightness of the morning hour. The sun, not the clock, was the farmers' guide. They were really the original daylight-savers.

The city dweller, however, has always been hampered by engagements that were not affected by the varying hour of sunrise. Banking hours and other appointments were regulated by law or by custom, and could be changed only with great difficulty. Whereas the farmers were independent, the city dwellers were interdependent. The clock, not the sun, was their guide.

Until Daylight Saving was introduced, the change in hour of the sunrise during the summer passed the city dweller by, without his taking advantage of it. Great Britain was far ahead of the United States in considering the possibilities of Daylight Saving. The first to advocate its adoption there was William Willett, who was thereafter given the title of "Father of Daylight Saving" in Great Britain. In the Fall of 1927 a memorial in his honor was dedicated in Petts Wood, Chiselhurst, near the churchyard where Willett was buried.

When the World War began, and King Efficiency was raised to the throne, necessity caused European countries to adopt Benjamin Franklin's Daylight Saving Plan, but the United States went right ahead on the old lines, out of step with Europe. Early in 1916 a British report showing the advantages of Daylight Saving came into my possession. I then called a meeting of five hundred representative citizens of New York, each one at the head of

some great organization of employees, employers or other society. The story of Daylight Saving was easily absorbed. There seemed to be only one side to the question. A proposition to start a campaign for its adoption in the United States received unanimous approval. A committee was at once organized, and an active publicity campaign was undertaken. On January 30 and 31, 1917, a convention was held in New York to make the movement national. The proposition was again received with unanimous acclaim, and the National Daylight Saving Association was organized with myself as President. Success greeted our efforts. A Federal law was enacted. On March 31, 1918, at 2 a. m. we had a great celebration, when the clocks were set forward one hour.

Afterwards the movement was made local instead of national, on account of the objection of farmers who, while they were daylight savers themselves, found fault with the city dwellers for wishing, in a measure, to avail themselves of the same advantages.

The period of Daylight Saving in the United States is from 2 a. m. on the last Sunday in April, until 2 a. m. on the last Sunday in September. These months were adopted after lengthy conferences with some expert astronomers who had studied the subject from the point of view of selecting for Daylight Saving the period which would bring about the greatest benefit to the greatest number.

Daylight Saving now prevails under a State Law throughout Massachusetts and Rhode Island, and under local ordinances in most of the large cities in the United States and their surrounding suburban communities. It is

a uniform national law throughout Great Britain, France, Belgium, Holland, Spain and several other countries, including Mexico.

Daylight Saving was actively aided by the Merchants' Associations throughout the country, by the Labor Unions, the Clerks' Association, the Athletic Clubs, Baseball, Tennis and Rowing Clubs, the Chambers of Commerce, the Medical Societies, Settlement Workers, etc. The principal advantages that were proven abroad as well as here, were: first, that the extra hour of sunlight during the time that we are awake adds to our health by giving us more opportunity for exercise in the open air; second, by using artificial light one hour less in each twenty-four, lighting bills are considerably reduced, and eye strain also minimized; third, people who never were able to cultivate a home garden were able, by arriving home in the afternoon during daylight, to cultivate the ground and raise their own vegetables; fourth, our Stock Exchanges and other commercial associations having international connections were brought into step with European countries with which they do business.

The first objection against Daylight Saving came from the farmer who complained that he must arise *before* daylight in order to get his milk to the city in time for the early breakfast table. The answer to this came from the former Health Commissioner of New York City who stated that *no* milk of the same day's milking *ever* could come to the early breakfast table, because it had to be regularly inspected before it was permitted to pass to the public. The milk the city dweller uses at breakfast is from the previous day's milking. In connection with other

products, milk-train schedules could readily be adjusted to meet the farmers' convenience.

Another complaint that has been made is that children are kept awake by Daylight Saving. It has been proven, however, that even where the sun shines, not one hour longer, but all night long, (as in upper Norway) the children's health and welfare are not at all unfavorably affected. They simply pull down the blind.

Of course, trivial objections are made that really should not be answered, such as: "We have no right to tinker with God's time"—"The number of divorces has increased since Daylight Saving came," and "What would you do if twins were born, one a minute before the clock was turned back and one a minute after? The record would show that the second twin was born first."

All these complaints do not weigh as against the economic and health-giving advantages of Daylight Saving.

In order to give the fullest measure of advantage Daylight Saving should be national. It is spreading slowly but surely. We find one city after another adopting it. It is hoped in time to be able to establish an Eastern Daylight Saving Zone, to be followed as the movement spreads by a Central and Western Daylight Saving Zone, and then, again, by a Federal law as in Great Britain.

Meanwhile, half a loaf is better than no bread, and we go right on cherishing the memory of Benjamin Franklin, who was the first man in the world to give us the Daylight Saving idea.

# Franklin, the Economist

*American Economic Association*

By John R. Turner
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Benjamin Franklin was not one to fashion words and definitions into a final consistent whole at the cost of human reality. His lively mind, absorbed in the affairs of the living, never divorced economics from the practical problems of the day. Consequently, his thinking gave rise neither to a labored tome on "Principles of Economics" nor to a chapter on the history of economic thought. Indeed, some inconsistencies can be found in his few broad generalizations, which Franklin himself would have been ready to admit. Writing prior to the time of Adam Smith, who was the first to systematize economic thinking, his versatile observations could not be expected to compose a consistent body of theory.

Yet his diversified economic observations were true to the practical problems which engaged his mind, and his ideas undoubtedly influenced the thinking of other economists. Bastiat, the Frenchman, whose work became important by virtue of its optimism, is said by a noted historian to have done little more than transcribe "Poor Richard's Almanack." Similarly, Malthus, whose pessimism caused Carlyle to call economics "the dismal science," drew in part his fundamental idea from one of Franklin's essays on population. Furthermore, John

Fanning Watson, in the "Annals of Philadelphia," writes, "Dr. Franklin once told Dr. Logan that the celebrated Adam Smith when writing his 'Wealth of Nations' was in the habit of bringing chapter after chapter as he composed it to himself, Dr. Price, and others of the literati, then patiently hear their observations and profit by their discussion and criticisms, sometimes submitting to write whole chapters anew, and even to reverse some of his propositions."

To grasp the influence of this many-sided man, we must keep in mind that Franklin was a man of affairs. He was not content to sit in dispassionate observance, watching the human pageant go by; he played an active rôle. Already conscious, by the middle of the eighteenth century, of the industrial, financial, and commercial struggles which were to produce the Revolutionary War, he wrote a series of essays and letters defending the interests of the American farming and artisan population.

The bounty of natural resources in America, he believed, not only made it easy to maintain or increase standards of living, but would result in doubling the population every twenty-five years. Too large an immigration from England, therefore, would only hasten the time when population in the Colonies would outstrip the possible growth of English manufacture. To delay that day, immigration should be discouraged; and in an essay entitled "Information to those who would remove to America," Franklin urged no one to come unless he had a trade useful in a new country. But even without immigration, the natural growth of numbers eventually would mean such a demand for goods that England's sources of

supply would be inadequate. Hence, Franklin argued, English traders should not seek to prohibit goods of Colonial manufacture. Moreover, to forestall arguments that to promote the foreign trade of the Empire a restrictive policy was necessary, he argued that in America, a pioneer country, free labor was too high to compete effectively with English labor, and that slave labor, instead of being cheap, was more expensive than free labor.

This freedom of manufacture, Franklin believed, called for a like freedom of trade. He said: "If commerce were as free between all the nations of the world as it is between the several counties of England, so would all, by mutual enjoyments obtain more enjoyments." Applying this doctrine particularly to England, he urged that "if the Colonies are fitter for a particular trade than Britain, they should have it, and Britain should hold to what it is more fit for. The whole Empire would be a gainer." Nevertheless, this view seems to have arisen more from a will to defend the commercial rights of America than from doctrinaire devotion to *laissez faire;* for when, in 1769, conflict with England seemed imminent, Franklin, doubtless thinking of national strength in war with England, wrote to the Committee of Merchants in Philadelphia that agreement not to import goods from England would enrich the country by limiting the use of superfluities, encouraging domestic manufacture, and increasing the available amount of precious metals.

The most voluminous and systematic of Franklin's economic writings are his essays defending paper currency. Holding that the shortage of precious metals in the

Colonies hindered trade, lowered land values and prices, encouraged usury, and so benefited the rich speculators at the expense of the working population, he advocated a plentiful currency secured by land, whose appreciation with denser settlement should be a guarantee against depreciation by over-issue. During the Revolutionary War, when money printers worked overtime, he was as quick to detect the abuses of paper as he had been to point out its uses. "Excessive issue," he declared, "is hurting orphans, widows, and salaried men." Further financing of the war, therefore, should be through interest-bearing loans redeemable in silver or through taxation.

Another of his vital interests was the problem of wresting from a new continent first subsistence, and later, perhaps, wealth. He recognized the peculiar opportunities offered by the America of his day:

> "Land being cheap in that country still void of inhabitants, hardy young labouring men who understand the husbandry of corn and cattle may establish themselves here. A little money saved on the good wages they receive there, would enable them to buy the land and begin their plantation.—Tolerabley good workmen in any of those mechanic arts are sure to find employ and to be well paid for their work. If they are poor, they begin first as servants or journeyman; and if they are sober, industrious, and frugal they soon become masters, establish themselves in business, marry, raise families, and become respectable citizens."

From this situation, Franklin drew a belief in the adequacy of private initiative which has remained an axiom of American economic philosophy to this day.

A society, he held, was more assured of an effective performance of its economic tasks if it relied upon individual rather than upon public incentive; for "individuals manage their affairs with so much more application, industry and address, than the public do theirs, that general interest most commonly gives way to particular." The rôle of government should be narrowly circumscribed. "It would be better," he says, "if government meddled no farther with trade than to protect it, and let it take its course." By giving trade its freedom, a natural balance between economic interests and forces would be secured. "The price of corn," he suggested, "like water, finds its own level. The more we export, the dearer it becomes at home; the more they receive abroad, the cheaper it becomes there; and as soon as these prices are equal, the exportation stops of course." And this natural level he believed is more just to all and more fruitful than any adjustment artificially established by governmental edict.

Franklin pointed out that a free society could be no better off economically than the skill, industry, and wisdom of its individual members. Slothful, indolent, and self-indulgent men will find themselves poorer as the years go by, and their society one of want and misery. It can be only the industrious, frugal, and self-disciplined men who are free to carve farms of fertile soil out of a wilderness, to develop manufacture and commerce, and to add wealth and plenty to the enjoyments of life. "America," he wrote, "is the land of labour, and by no means what the English call *Lubberland*, and the French *Pays de Cocagne*, where the streets are said to be paved with half-peck loaves, the houses tiled with pancakes,

and where the fowls fly about ready roasted, crying, *Come Eat Me!*" In his advice to Europeans intending to come to America, he discouraged those who would come with the expectation of a life of ease and luxury, who would trade their grace of manner, level of culture, or quality of birth for an unearned livelihood. "A mere man of quality, who on that account wants to live upon the public by some office or salary, will be despised and disregarded." Only those with useful trade and who were willing to work were welcome. "A husbandman is in honour here, and even the mechanic, because their employments are useful." And to emphasize his point he quoted a common saying of his day, "that God Almighty is himself a mechanic, the greatest in the universe; and he is respected and admired more for the variety, ingenuity, and utility of his handicraft works, than for the antiquity of his family."

The economist may well read Franklin's writings. He will not find therein a consistent body of theory which is granted universal recognition. That would be expecting too much. But he will find striking observations by a lively mind—observations that caused Wetzel to say that Franklin was "the first American who deserved to be dignified by the title, Economist."

# Franklin and Fire Insurance

*The National Board of Fire Underwriters*

By W. E. Mallalieu
*General Manager*

In the early days before that memorable year of 1776, Lord North asked of Benjamin Franklin what it was that the Americans wanted; he was answered, "We desire nothing but what is necessary to our security and well-being."

"*Our security and well-being.*" This was no careless retort, no mere combination of meaningless words to bridge over an awkward situation. When Franklin referred to a desire for the security and well-being of Americans, he voiced the purpose which had possessed him more and more with the passing years, the purpose which had made of a boy of the common people an American *citizen* embodying every fine attribute that the word implies.

It was Franklin the Citizen whose name stood at the head of the list of the twelve directors of the fire insurance company organized in Philadelphia. In his "Autobiography" Franklin does not mention this undertaking, but we know from many other records that he took a leading part in promoting the founding of the first chartered fire insurance company on this continent. In fact it would have been contrary to his avowed habit to claim the idea as his own even if he had originated it, for in speaking of his public work in his "Autobiography" he stated that he was always "avoiding as much as I could,

according to my usual rule, the presenting myself to the public as the author of any scheme for their benefit." And he was the author of many schemes for the benefit of the public!

Among these schemes was one that was undertaken for pleasure, and civic enterprise—the organization of the famous Junto, or Leathern Apron Club, which was effected when he was but twenty-one. In this club young thinkers came together to present papers and discuss chosen topics. Franklin's interest in public affairs increased after he was thirty, yet he still brought his ideas before the Junto, invited discussion among its members, and then set about carrying out plans proposed for the good of the city. Just as a more practical method of police protection than the one that was acknowledgedly inefficient was suggested to the Junto and later adopted by the city authorities, it was before the Junto that Franklin read the first paper ever presented in America relating to fire prevention. The outcome of the discussion which followed was the organizing of the Union Fire Company, Philadelphia's first volunteer fire company. Several others were soon formed in various parts of the city.

The fact that he had in reality brought about the organization of the fire companies would have made him necessary to the group that planned to form a fire insurance company. People could see the practical results of his paper on the "different accidents and carelessness by which houses were set on fire" in the way in which they were protected against threatening conflagrations. After the Union Fire Company had been in existence for fifty years Franklin said, "I question whether there is a city

in the world better provided with the means of putting a stop to beginning conflagrations."

He wrote the following advice on fire prevention, which clearly demonstrates his intense interest in the subject, as well as his practical ideas:

"I lament the loss your town has suffered this year by fire. I sometimes think men do not act like reasonable creatures when they build for themselves combustible dwellings in which they are every day obliged to use fire. In my new buildings I have taken a few precautions not generally used, to wit: none of the wooden work of one room communicates with the wooden work of any other room; and all the floors, and even the steps of the stairs, are plastered close."

The fire companies were remarkably efficient. But as time went by and the city grew, business men could not remain satisfied with the protection afforded by groups of men banded together to fight fire. Their work was gratifying as far as it went; but little effort of the imagination was required to picture the possibility of something beyond the "beginning conflagrations," something with which these companies could not cope. To men engaged in business this would mean practical bankruptcy. It was necessary to devise some plan by which they might lessen the dangers of financial loss in case of fire. Here was a challenge they must accept, a problem which they must solve. The outstanding business men of Philadelphia were the ones most interested in the solution of the problem.

The matter of some form of indemnity in event of fire was discussed here and there informally; at last a date was

set for an open meeting through the following notice which appeared in Franklin's "Pennsylvania Gazette": "All persons inclined to subscribe to the articles of insurance of houses from fire, in or near this city, are desired to appear at the Court-house, where attendance will be given, to take in their subscriptions, every seventh day of the week, in the afternoon, until the 13th of April next, being the day appointed by the said articles for electing twelve directors and a treasurer." The outcome of this meeting in the Court House in April, 1752, was the formation of a first chartered fire insurance company designed to protect the individual from severe financial loss, should his property suffer from fire.

It has already been stated that it was because he was a *Citizen* that Franklin was elected one of the directors of this company. He had advocated too many public causes not to share in one so important. It was the boy who during his first English residence made some arrangement for borrowing books from a book shop, who later evolved the entirely original idea of the subscription library which had been a blessing to many towns and cities. His good sense and his ability to gain an influential following made him a most desirable director. It was admitted that there was no such thing as carrying out a public spirited project in Philadelphia without first gaining Franklin's interest and influence.

Surely the men who had in mind the organizing of a company that would provide some security against the hazards of fire could not afford to be without the assistance of this man. Besides, Franklin had recently given up active work in the printing plant and was supposedly

a man of leisure; men were not willing to let him be lazy, but insisted on his exchanging one form of employment for several others. He said of this period of his life, "The publick, now considering me a man of leisure, laid hold of me for their purposes, every part of our civil government and almost at the same time, imposing some duty upon me." Little wonder that he should say: "A life of leisure and a life of laziness are two things."

"The best possible measures are seldom adopted from previous wisdom, but forced by the occasion," Franklin once wrote; this sounds much like the familiar maxim, "Necessity is the mother of invention." Men prominent in business affairs in Philadelphia, as in other cities, knew that it was now necessary to adopt some sane measures that would lessen the disastrous financial results of fire. For this reason they had answered the call for the meeting in the Court House.

As these men groped about for some means by which they might relieve their own liability, they realized that there was little in established practice for them to work on. They knew that, years before, the great London fire had brought to the minds of their English friends the desirability of establishing something in the nature of an insurance organization that would protect property owners on land, as the long established forms of marine insurance safeguarded owners of ships and cargoes. The first regular office for insuring against loss by fire was opened "at the back side of the Royal Exchange" just fifteen years after the fire. Several other plans were tried in the next few years with varying success; by 1710 a plan had been evolved that offered a solution of the problem

to England, but this was not available in America for more than fifty years.

The Philadelphians in their conference, struggling to find some solution of the pressing problem, considered methods of insurance already practiced in England and finally organized a plan of insurance for Philadelphia. In their plan the financial blow that threatened each one through the danger of fire could in part be averted by a united effort by means of a commonly pooled fund, the loss sustained by any member being made good, or at least diminished, from this fund. This was really the first effort to offer a form of fire insurance in America. From the realization of this need a towering structure of modern business has been evolved. Before this time other men in America had conceived the idea, but perhaps their failure to work it out successfully was because they lacked the experience and influence of a Franklin necessary for advancing such a project.

It was a simple idea that these men put forth, almost a pitifully simple idea when viewed from the standpoint of modern fire insurance methods and achievements. But it was an *Idea,* the seed that was being planted in a new soil by thoughtful men, a seed that might perhaps lie dormant but that would never die. It had only a frail spark of life, but that life was to expand and reach out with ever-increasing energy and usefulness, until it should become one of the greatest agencies for the well-being of individuals and for establishing the financial stability of America.

Twelve directors were chosen for the Philadelphia insurance company on that April day in 1752, and the name

of Benjamin Franklin was the first name on the list. The help given this new organization may have been only an incident in the crowded life of Franklin; indeed, neither he nor any of the directors could have had any idea of the importance of the work begun by them, any possible conception of the future startling magnitude and beneficence of fire insurance. They only knew that they needed some means of safeguarding themselves against the risk of financial loss from fire, and they, the representative business leaders of the city, had united to reduce that risk. A man of such recognized power in public affairs as Benjamin Franklin was needed by the new company, and there is no doubt that Franklin realized his own need of the backing of the company, for his business and property interests were as much at the mercy of possible fires as were those of others. It is a matter of record that he insured certain properties in 1752 by Policies 19 and 20 and in 1763 by still another; four years later his new house "where his family dwells" was insured for five hundred pounds by Policy 1148.

The minutes of the meetings held in the first year show that "Benjamin Franklin is desired to get a sufficient number of Policies printed"; at the end of the next year he was asked to publish an advertisement for the company in his "Gazette," which was as follows:

> "Insurance Office, Philadelphia,
> January 1, 1754.
>
> "Notice is hereby given to those that have had, or shall have, their houses and stores insured in this Office, that if any damage arises to such houses or stores, by the breaming of ships at their wharves, or by gunpowder stored in

their buildings, contrary to the good and wholesome laws of this province in those cases provided, such damage will not be made good by this office.

"Persons inclining to insure, are first to apply to Joseph Saunders, clerk to the company, at the office in Water-street, and deposite Ten Shillings earnest-money, on which their buildings will be immediately survey'd, and the policies forwarded with expedition."

Franklin was not officially connected with the insurance company after 1754; from this time on he was often away from the city, occupied with affairs of public moment acting as a representative in London or Paris. Yet he was still interested in a study of the nature of fire and also in methods of building by which fire hazards could be reduced. He held up as models the almost fireproof houses of Paris.

Another article on fire prevention from Franklin's pen appeared in "Poor Richard's Almanack" the year following the organization of Philadelphia's first insurance plan. He had been studying electricity and his experiments had resulted in the invention of the lightning rod. Under the heading "How to Secure Houses, &c. from Lightning" he explained this device. The description is introduced by the quaintly reverent words: "It has pleased God in His goodness to mankind, at length to discover to them the means of securing their habitations and other buildings from mischief by thunder and lightning." This is still another proof that Franklin was not in the habit of claiming praise for himself.

Franklin was admittedly in advance of his time in his ideas on the currency; as early as 1754 he was urging a

union of the Colonies; when he proposed a "stage wagon" to carry mail once every week from Philadelphia to New York it was said that he was pushing matters too fast. How would the far-sighted Franklin have regarded the modern fire insurance business? Is it too difficult to picture him among the directors of a present-day company? Would Franklin slip into the background, unable to grasp the expanded insurance idea of this day?

George III warned his ministers to be on their guard in their dealings with Franklin, describing him as "that crafty American who is more than a match for you all." One need merely recall the readiness with which Franklin accepted the good points in new ventures, or note how "Poor Richard's" sayings seem to have been written for men of this generation, to be persuaded that the insurance structure as the basis of all modern credit transactions, its safeguarding against losses not only from fire but from many other catastrophes threatening the individual, would be heartily endorsed by him. In this great fire insurance business he would see an achievement which contributes largely to the *security* and *well-being* of the American people.

# Franklin, the Advocate of Peace

*National Council for Prevention of War*

By Joseph H. Baird
*As Associate Secretary*

"After much occasion to consider the folly and mischiefs of a state of warfare, and the little or no advantage obtained even by those nations who have conducted it with the most success, I have been apt to think that there has never been, nor ever will be, any such thing as a *good* war or a *bad* peace."

Who speaks this heresy against the great game of nations? Some ascetic monk looking from his cloistered isolation upon the follies of mankind? Some humanist turned fanatic? Some religious mystic fleeing from the sanguinary life of earthlings to a vapid Utopia of his own imagining? No, it is none of these, nor others of their ilk. Rather, 'tis sturdy Ben Franklin, of Philadelphia, writing to his English friend, Dr. Shipley, Bishop of St. Asaph, and expressing to him the conviction which found its way into many another of Franklin's letters.

Strange, is it not, that Franklin the practical, the man who kept his feet on solid earth; Franklin, the one-time Colonel of a Pennsylvania regiment; Franklin, the inventor, business-man and printer, should have been so visionary and idealistic as to preach against war in an age when others were glorifying it? One cannot read his "Autobiography," however, nor the extant letters he wrote to friends, without repeatedly coming across evi-

Franklin believed in preparedness. See article on Franklin, the Soldier. —Editor.

dence that Franklin hated war, considered it a great folly, and by his pen and his influence strove to rid the world of it. An excellent expression of what Franklin really thought of the art of Mars is contained in the following excerpt from a letter to Mrs. Jane Mecom, written in 1787:

> "I agree with you perfectly in your disapprobation of war. Abstracted from the inhumanity of it, I think it wrong in point of human prudence; for, whatever advantage one nation would obtain from another . . . it would be cheaper to purchase such advantage with ready money than to pay the expense of acquiring it by war. . . . It seems to me that, if statesmen had a little more arithmetic or were more accustomed to calculation, wars would be much less frequent. I am confident that Canada might have been purchased from France for a tenth part of the money England spent in the conquest of it. And if, instead of fighting with us for the power of taxing us, she had kept us in good humour by allowing us to dispose of our own money, and now and then giving us a little of hers, by way of donation to colleges, or hospitals, or for cutting canals, or fortifying ports, she might have easily drawn from us much more by our occasional voluntary grants and contributions than ever she could by taxes. Sensible people will give a bucket or two of water to a dry pump, that they may afterward get from it all they have occasion for. Her ministry were deficient in that little point of common sense. And so they spent one hundred millions of her money, and after all lost what they contended for."

This scathing condemnation of war can leave no doubt as to Franklin's attitude. He considers war as inhuman and as economic folly. Let us now search for causes. We shall find them both in the character of the man and in that of his age.

But aside from the influence of his age, there were in Franklin's make-up innate attitudes, beliefs, and convictions which would permit him to see the folly of war, and having seen it, to speak boldly against it. Examine, for instance, his creed of living, which was of necessity a reflection of his standards. We find there the following virtues which he set out to attain: Temperance, Silence, Order, Resolution, Industry, Sincerity, Justice, Moderation, Cleanliness, Tranquillity, Chastity, Humility. Can we find one of these that might be attributed to Mars, the God of War? How incompatible are all of them with the actualities of battle!

Moreover, Franklin's biographers are agreed that the outstanding characteristic of this man was "a gusto for living." An early student of Dr. Mather's "Essays to do Good," the young Franklin set up as his life motto the theme of these papers. Thus, two dominant characteristics —a strong love of humanity and a consequent hatred of destruction—militated against Franklin's acceptance of war as a valid institution.

In truth, the Philadelphia philosopher was a child of his age; he was born to question, to search, to turn over in his mind the implications of life and death; and having set his mind firmly on the truth as he saw it, he possessed the necessary steadfastness and determination to express himself forcibly and let the consequences be what they might.

And when, at length, America and England had peace restored, Franklin expressed his fervent thanksgiving in a letter to Mrs. Mary Hewson, written from Passy, France, and dated January 27, 1783: "At length we are

in peace, God be praised, and long, very long may it continue! All wars are follies, very expensive, and very mischievous ones. When will mankind be convinced of this, and agree to settle their differences by arbitration? Were they to do it, even by the cast of a die, it would be better than by fighting and destroying each other."

It would be an untrue assumption and an injustice to Dr. Franklin, however, to conclude that his opposition to war was based solely on love for his fellows. For, in truth, his position was buttressed round by pure and cold economic reasoning. "When will princes learn arithmetic enough to calculate," he asked Benjamin Vaughn, in 1788, "if they want pieces of one another's territory, how much cheaper it would be to buy them than to make war for them, even though they were to give a hundred years' purchase?" And, five years earlier, he had written to his friend, David Hartley: "What repeated follies are those repeated wars! You do not want to conquer and govern one another. Why then should you be continually employed injuring and destroying one another? How many excellent things might have been done to promote the internal welfare of each country; what bridges, roads, canals, and other useful public works and institutions, tending to the common felicity, might have been made and established with the money and men foolishly spent during the last seven centuries by our mad wars in doing one another mischief! You are near neighbours, and each have very respectable qualities. Learn to be quiet and to respect each other's rights."

Franklin's deep concern about the economic folly of war is quite logical when we remember that the man was

a skillful economist. Among his many prominent friends, none was held in higher regard than Adam Smith, famed Scotch professor and author of "The Wealth of Nations." A large part of the "Autobiography," we find, is given over to accounts of Franklin's schemes for improving the commerce and business of Philadelphia and the Colonies generally. Any project which offered promise of stimulating trade or raising the standard of living among the citizens was sure to have Franklin's endorsement and active aid. In this connection he carried on a voluminous correspondence with friends in America, England, and France; and in many of these letters we run across his observations on the deleterious effect of war on commerce, together with proposed international laws for protecting merchants and tradesmen. In a letter to Alexander Small, in 1789, is found a plan for neutralizing certain classes of people who were producers of goods. Those who would be thus protected, were: Cultivators of the earth, fishermen, merchants and traders in unarmed ships, artists and mechanics. After outlining the plan, he says further: "It is hardly necessary to add that the hospitals of enemies should be unmolested; they ought to be assisted."

Privateering, which flourished in Franklin's time, likewise met with his condemnation. The young "Ben" had spent his boyhood in the port of Boston, had listened there to stirring tales of swift pursuits by sea-hawks, of shiny swords flashing above blood-soaked decks, of grizzled sailors climbing main-masts with other sailors shinning up behind, knives clasped in their mouths and pistols thrust through belts. Doubtless these tales had stirred brave imaginings of dangers faced and triumphed over,

of glory, heroism, romance; of that fine essence of gallant dreams which yields the wine to intoxicate youth. "Ben" tells us that he wished to go to sea and was kept from it only by the stern discipline of his father. But the glory and glamour of sea-fights had become a faint memory to the mature Franklin of 1785, who wrote to Benjamin Vaughn: "But methinks it well behooves merchants (men more enlightened by their education, and perfectly free from any such force or obligation) to consider well of the justice of a war before they voluntarily engage a gang of ruffians to attack their fellow-merchants of a neighbouring nation. . . . Yet these things are done by Christian merchants. . . . It is high time, for the sake of humanity, that a stop were put to this enormity."

No impractical dreamer, Franklin realized that as long as nations filled the seas with commerce, as long as expanding populations needed food, and as long as avaricious men in all countries coveted wealth, so long would there be disputes among nations. But, like most thinkers, the Philadelphia sage perceived that international problems were never really settled by wars. In 1780, he wrote to Richard Price: "We daily make great improvements in *natural*—there is one I wish to see in *moral*—philosophy; the discovery of a plan that would induce and oblige nations to settle their disputes without first cutting one another's throats. When will human reason be sufficiently improved to see the advantage of this?" It is clear, then, that Franklin knew there must be some substitute for war. This alternative he saw in arbitration treaties; and by letters to prominent friends he sought acceptance of this principle, which he had embodied in specific terms.

"What would you think of a proposition, if I should make it," he asks his English friend, David Hartley, in 1783, "of a compact between England, France, and America? America would be as happy as the Sabine girls, if she could be the means of uniting in perpetual peace her father and her husband. . . . You are all Christians. One is *The Most Christian King*, and the other, *Defender of the Faith.* Manifest the propriety of these titles by your future conduct."

Another project about which Franklin wrote much was the adoption of international laws and rules of warfare, which, should war come despite all efforts at a peaceful settlement of difficulties, would at least make it more humane and less permanently damaging to the commerce and industry of the combatants. In a letter written to Edmund Burke, remembered today for his famous speech, "On Conciliation With the Colonies," Franklin gave an ingenious reason for such rules: "Since the foolish part of mankind will make wars from time to time with each other," he wrote, "not having sense enough otherwise to settle their differences, it certainly becomes the wiser part, who cannot prevent those wars, to alleviate as much as possible the calamities attending them."

Again, he writes: "It is for the interest of humanity in general that the occasions of war and the inducements to it should be diminished.

"If rapine is abolished, one of the encouragements to war is taken away, and peace therefore more likely to continue and be lasting."

Such, then, were the seasoned convictions of Benjamin Franklin regarding war. Can we sum up the purport of

his teachings? He tells us that war is an antiquated and uncivilized method of settling disputes, and that, consequently, it must be relegated to the same status in international affairs that duelling now occupies among individuals; that war is uncivilized, wasteful, and unprofitable; and that "little or no advantage is obtained even by those nations who have conducted it with the most success."

Practical, hard-headed, sophisticated, with a scientific bent which made him hate the disorderliness of war, and with a humanitarian spirit which abhorred its brutality, Franklin, beyond his contemporaries, was a forerunner of the era of permanent peace for which nations yearn. Who cannot join Franklin in his fervid hope "That not only the love of liberty, but a thorough knowledge of the rights of man, may pervade all the nations of the earth, so that a philosopher may set his foot anywhere on its surface, and say, 'This is my country' "?

# Franklin and the Negro

*National Association for the Advancement of Colored People*

By Mary White Ovington

*Chairman of the Board of Directors*

Franklin, during his long life, came rarely in contact with the Negro and slavery. Born in New England, he saw little of chattel slavery. His sympathy for the laborer was directed to the apprentice bound out for years to an employer, the apprentice whom he endeavored to aid in his will. A large part of his life was spent in England and France, and it was not until he returned to this country in 1785 that he came abruptly in touch with the Negro question. As a member of the Constitutional Convention of 1787 he saw the division of opinion regarding slavery and the slave trade. He was opposed strongly to the trade, but he was a great believer in harmony, even though that could only be obtained through compromise. When, therefore, he said in the Convention, "we are sent here to *consult* not to *contend* with one another, and declaration of a fixed opinion and a determined resolution never to change it neither enlightens nor convinces us," he showed that he would not push his views, if by so doing he prevented the adoption of the Constitution.

It was in his own city of Philadelphia that he worked for the amelioration of the lot of the Negro. He was president of a society for promoting the abolition of slavery, for the relief of free Negroes unwillingly held in

bondage, and for other improvement of the condition of the African race. Of the free Negro's position, Franklin wrote as follows: "Slavery is such an atrocious debasement of human nature, that its very extirpation, if not performed with solicitous care, may sometimes open a source of serious evils. The unhappy man who has long been treated as a brute animal, too frequently sinks beneath the common standard of the human species. He has not learned reason, but is governed by fear. He is poor and friendless, perhaps worn out by extreme labour, age and disease. Under such circumstances freedom may prove prejudicial to him and society. So far as we contribute to promote emancipation, so far we must help the emancipated." Among the activities of this Society were the placing out of children, the securing of employment for those of an age to work, and the promotion of education.

Franklin's last public act was the presentation of a memorial to the House of Representatives on February 12, 1789, * asking them to exert the full extent of the power vested in them by the Constitution to discourage the slave traffic. In this memorial, signed by him as president of the Abolition Society, he prayed, "That you will find means for removing this inconsistency from the character of the American people; that you will promote mercy and justice toward this distressed race; and that you will step to the very verge of the power vested in you for discouraging every species of traffic in the persons of your fellow-men."

Franklin died April 17, 1790. March 23rd there appeared in the "Federal Gazette" an essay signed Histori-

* Just twenty years later Abraham Lincoln was born.—EDITOR.

cus, which was from Franklin's pen. It was an answer to a speech made in Congress by Jackson of Georgia, a speech which, in its main features, was to be given frequently for the next seventy-five years; extolling the white race and proclaiming the innate inferiority of the colored. Franklin's reply showed that he kept his sense of humor to the last. He invented a speech of a Mohammedan ruler against a petition to free Christians captured by his ships and used as slaves. There was the well-known argument of the white man against the black. "Who will cultivate our lands if we cease to make slaves?" "Men accustomed to slavery will not work for a livelihood unless compelled." "Our people will not pollute ourselves by intermarriage with the whites." The Mohammedan ends by assuring the petitioners that the white slaves are treated humanely and that slavery is allowed in the Koran.

We may sum up Franklin's relationship to the Negro by saying that a man of his deep humanity, a man who in his youth became a vegetarian because he could not accept "the unprovoked slaughter of animals," a man who was in sympathy with the North American Indians, would, without question, detest slavery and the white man's spirit of caste. Had he lived in the nineteenth century, he would doubtless have taken a strong stand against the enslavement of his fellow-men. His temper was that of Lincoln rather than of the abolition leaders, and he would have believed in working through political channels. But he was born in the eighteenth, not the nineteenth century. He did not see the terrible calamities ahead. He was embued with the liberal spirit of his time, and doubtless he felt that the black man's labor would become increasingly

unimportant and that slavery would gradually cease. He fought a great, lengthy battle for the white man's political freedom—surely enough for one lifetime. We may be glad that he did not know of the civil strife that was later to come.

# Franklin, America's First Great Humorist

*American Press Humorists*

By Griffith Alexander
*Ex-President*

Benjamin Franklin was unquestionably America's first great humorist; but since at Literature's round table little attention need be paid to place cards, of more importance and interest is the truth (of which I am convinced) that Franklin was humorist first; philosopher, statesman, scientist, what you will, but humorist first.

Humor is an extra pair of spectacles, gift of a kindly jinn to one he favors, for the study of the Book of Life. It relieves intellectual astigmatism and makes clear the thing it seems to distort.

Benjamin Franklin was equipped with an especially fine pair of spectacles.

Humor (at once a great man's weakness and his strength) was Franklin's guardian angel and his shining star. When he faltered, it jollied him along. It strengthened him in his virtues and condoned his weaknesses. By convincing him that half a loaf is better than no bread, it enabled him to make progress by compromise. It provided him with a touch of cynicism which kept him tolerant. It gave him delight in the doing of little things, knowing in his heart that some of the "big things" were in themselves trifling. It convinced him that, since it was not always easy to *be* good, it was perhaps a just thing

that he should *do* good. It took him out of himself. So could he have his vanity tickled without his ego being enlarged. He appreciated the common base (as he once pointed out) of dolls and idols.

Humor was the merry physician who healed his wounds with salt; put a burr on his saddle when he was tempted to ride a high horse; tempered the wind to the shorn lamb.

Even as humor gives the veriest clod a touch of genius, so it saved genius from the dullness of perfection. Franklin knew his weaknesses, but did not permit them to dismay him.

He made a little statue of himself in the garden of his soul and alternately strove to make it perfect and pelted it with little bits of clay; not at all unhappily, but as one who would have liked to achieve perfection, but, having failed, is willing to accept failure without embarrassment. He made rules for himself—oh, so many rules!—dietary rules; moral rules; religious rules; cheerfully broke them and just as cheerfully found justification for his defections.

Born in a dour age, he yet managed to walk through life with a smiling face. Being kind to himself, he was kind to others. Charity which begins at home does not always stay there.

Benjamin Franklin, youthful vegetarian, on board a sloop New York-bound from Boston, had his nostrils assailed by the savory odors of tomcod a-cooking. "I balanced some time between principle and inclination," he writes, "until I recollected that when the fish were opened I saw smaller fish taken from out of their stomachs; then

thought I, 'If you eat one another, I don't see why I mayn't eat you.' So I dined upon cod very heartily, and continued to eat with other people, returning only now and then occasionally to a vegetable diet. So convenient a thing it is to be a reasonable creature, since it enables one to find or make a reason for everything one has a mind to."

No attempt at self-deception here; but rather a waggish confession of weakness that savors of strength.

Nor did his habit change with the years. In a letter to Mrs. Mary Hewson, written in the closing years of his life, he says: "I have indeed now and then a little compunction in reflecting that I spend time so idly; but another reflection comes to relieve me, whispering: 'You know that the soul is immortal; why, then, should you be such a niggard of a little time when you have a whole eternity before you?' So, being easily convinced, and, like other reasonable creatures, satisfied with a small reason, when it is in favour of doing what I have a mind to, I shuffle the cards again and begin another game."

Blessings on the dear old man, doesn't that touch us all where we live? And those who want further proof that he was kind to his own shortcomings and the shortcomings of others may read Polly Baker's speech.

But that this waggish humor of his was his servant and not his master is evidenced by any study of his life. It solved many of his difficulties and the difficulties of others. As Colonel of militia he saw to it that his men were served with grog after prayers. In no other way could they receive the benefit of both. If he hadn't lived that episode, he would have put it in a parable.

All Poor Richard's maxims are measures for real or fancied personal problems; and the "Almanack" is full of self-analysis and self-revelation.

Humor is the accommodating something behind the ears which preserves one's balance in any and all circumstances.

The maxims were born of his time and situation:

"God helps them that help themselves."
"Plough deep while sluggards sleep."
"Three removes are as bad as a fire."
"He that goes a-borrowing goes a-sorrowing."
"It is hard for an empty bag to stand upright."

This is the homely wisdom of the small tradesman; notatall the larger wisdom of the bigger Franklin. There is hint of the fact in

"Vessels large may venture more,
But little boats should keep near shore."

"That he (Franklin) was a great genius," says John Adams, "a great wit, a great humorist, a great satirist, and a great politician is certain. That he was a great philosopher, a great moralist and a great statesman is more questionable."

A shrewd appraisal enough; but there is a fine line between the things conceded and the things questioned.

He was a great politician; therefore adept at diplomacy; and, given such a medium, one never knows the moment the spirit of statesmanship may materialize.

Unlike Disko Troop, he was frequently mistaken in his "judgments"; and when convinced of the fact he made no bones about switching his viewpoint; adjusting

his glasses. This was not fickleness; it was true modesty; and it smacks of great statesmanship. He was no weathercock swayed by the winds; he was rather a trim craft with sails sensitive to the winds; and his motto was, "Know your goal and when you have to tack, tack!"

The compromise was ever one of method. To think otherwise is to do the man injustice. There is profound conviction in his words: "They that can give up essential liberty to obtain a little temporary safety deserve neither liberty nor safety."

He was no fiery zealot ready to die for a cause, courting martyrdom. It sometimes requires more stamina to live for a cause. There was courage as well as humor in his declaration at a crucial moment, "We must all hang together or assuredly we shall all hang separately."

It was Franklin's Modesty (Humor's natural daughter) which, after succeeding compromises, gave the world the United States Senate. And that, may it please the court, was statesmanship.

For the rest of the Adams indictment it may be said: He was a humorist; then, by the same token, he was a philosopher; and, with due regard to time and place and environment, a moralist. Trilby, possessing all the virtues save one, could do him full justice.

He was a humorist first.

Wit is a telephone operator, establishing quick connection between surface brain impressions and the tip of the tongue. Humor is compound of heart and brain; it is character.

Commissioner Franklin at the court of France was ambassador, diplomat, consular agent, commercial agent,

head of a great secret service, treasurer and disburser of a mighty secret fund, editor and prop. of the Star Spangled Banner—the Star Spangled Banner's greatest prop!—a joyous ant-eater gathering golden sequins on his honeyed tongue for a patriot cause; a roly-poly diplomatist who accomplished more with a pretty speech to a pretty lady than ever a straight-laced, rule-ridden formalist could with straight talk; a dilatory old man who got action by never appearing to be in a hurry; a man with clean hands who knew the money he was spending passed through other hands sticky with self-interest; an honest man maligned by rogues, and, what was much worse, accused by men whom he knew to be honest (though stupid) but who thought him a scoundrel; and all this time, honored and fêted and worshipped by a populace, not of his own race, who thought him a little tin god! What could have preserved the poise, the sanity of a man in such a case but a strong sense of humor! Humorist first!

# Franklin, the Athlete

*Amateur Athletic Union of the United States*
*American Olympic Committee*
*Intercollegiate Association of Amateur Athletes of America*

By Gustavus T. Kirby
*Ex-President*

From a boy to old age Franklin loved life and lived it. He appreciated that one's appetites were to be temperately used and not by excess or prohibition abused. He was a man's man and a ladies' man. The appeal of sex was ever dominant, though never clouding his love of nature; his interest in science, nor his duty to his country. He not only thought, but he acted. He not only dreamed dreams and had visions, at which the scientists marvelled, but gave the application of the discoveries and results flowing from these meditations to the world, which was greatly bettered thereby.

Few of those who have written of this great man have, however, called any attention to one of the fundamental reasons why he was what he was. The University of Pennsylvania, either by accident or design, hit upon this motive force of his life, and has given Franklin his greatest honors not alone in Tait McKenzie's sterling statue of Franklin in the prime and pep of his young manhood, striding across New Jersey on his way to Philadelphia, the metropolis of his day, with his wherewithal tied in a handkerchief and carried on a stick across his shoulder, but more especially in dedicating to his memory and call-

*Drawn by Ed Hughes*

THE STURDY FRANKLIN, AT 17, CROSSING NEW JERSEY

*This trip is immortalized in bronze by Dr. R. Tait McKenzie's statue at the University of Pennsylvania.*

ing by his name their great arena for amateur sports competition, thereby carrying out in fact Franklin's admonitions on the founding of the University, which were, that its duty to the youth of the land should be: "To keep them in health and to strengthen and render active their bodies." And that to the end that this might be accomplished, "they be frequently exercised in running, leaping, wrestling, swimming, etc."

The young men of Franklin's day were huskies. It was a question of the survival of the fittest. The weaklings fell by the wayside. The strong and vigorous in body alone survived. If one walked with the rest he must walk well. All must ride, and to ride with the rest one must ride well. The manly arts of wrestling and boxing were practiced by the farmers in their fields, by the artisans in their work-yards, and by the bankers and merchants in their gymnasia. If you excelled, it was not with the present-day pampered methods of padded gloves and soft mats and limited rounds of competition, but with the bare knuckles and stripped to the waist, with the falls on hard ground or barn floor. Swimming was not, as yet, an art; the modern crawl was undreamed of; the frog was the example of both how to dive and how to swim, and they who did this well were few and the wonder and envy of their associates. In running and jumping all took part. Our records of these early athletes are few, but it is known that Washington could out-jump all in the rank and file at Valley Forge, and rumor has it that he could leap, with a running start, well over 22 feet.

In Franklin's day, then as now, many boxed and wrestled, walked and ran and jumped and rowed and

played, just because they liked it, or because the spirit of competition was in them. And thus to an extent it was with Franklin. But his philosophical mind went well beyond the mere moment of his exercise or play or competition, and this in fact is the lesson from Franklin to us of this day. As a youth he realized that old age would some day be his. As a scientist, he knew that old age brought with it its decrepitude and its loss of the luscious appetites, vigorous emotions and the mental and physical attainments of youth. But he also realized that to carry into old age at least a part of that which youth held out, one must conserve, exercise and strengthen the mental and bodily forces with which mankind is blessed.

Perhaps at the age of seventeen, when he hiked the fifty miles, more or less, from Perth Amboy to Burlington, New Jersey, he had little or no thought other than that of getting to his destination. Perhaps when yet a youngster, as is told in his "Autobiography," he "stripped and leaped into the river and swam from near Chelsea to Blackfriars, performing on the way many feats of activity, both upon and under water, that surprised and pleased those to whom they were novelties," he was merely "showing off." Perhaps when he wrestled manfully and threw his man, or boxed or ran or jumped with skill, there was merely the joy of exercise or competition dominant in his mind. But it seems reasonable to deduce from his advice to others, and his many philosophical statements upon the subject, that in addition to these joys of the moment, he was also keeping himself physically fit and mentally alert to the end that in his old age there would be preserved at least a part of those enjoyments of

youth which are lost to all who by dissipation burn up their passions and their privileges, as well as to those who by lack of exercise atrophy them.

Franklin was always an internationalist, and none more than he appreciated the Olympic ideal of today of "sport for all and all for sport" and of "sport for sport's sake," which is the essence of amateurism; of modesty in victory and courage in defeat, which through the medium of the Olympic Games and other international contests is a precept and example in behavior and good conduct being spread throughout the world.

After Franklin, as a youth in England, had given his exhibition of swimming and diving, it was proposed to him by one Wygate, that they travel all over Europe together, supporting themselves by working at the business of swimming, and as his "Autobiography" puts it: "One day I was, to my surprise, sent for by a great man I knew only by name—Sir William Wyndham, and I waited upon him. He had heard by some means or other of my swimming from Chelsea to Blackfriars, and my teaching Wygate and another young man to swim in a few hours. He had two sons about to set out on their travels; he wished to have them first taught swimming and proposed to gratify me handsomely if I would teach them. They were not yet come to town, and my stay was uncertain, so I could not undertake it; but, from this incident, I thought it likely that, if I were to remain in England and open a swimming school, I might get a good deal of money; and it struck me so strongly, that, had the overture been sooner made me, probably I should not so soon have returned to America."

If Franklin, as a youth, had accepted the opportunity to start a natatorium in England, the world would have lost a figure which none excelled. Why he did not do so and thereby become a professional instructor or perhaps even a professional competitor, was probably due to a variety of causes, but certainly it is reasonable to include that desire of which he gave evidence through his life, to make his sports merely avocations to be engaged in for the fun thereof, and not for financial gain. Moreover, shrewd business man that he was, with an uncanny ability to capitalize his every asset, he must have realized that though the position of swimming master was an honorable one, and with a commensurate immediate financial return, in the long run it would have deprived him of those profits which his talents and genius would—and did—find for him in other fields.

It would be "bending the long bow" to describe Franklin as one of the first I. C. A. A. A. A. champions, and the chances are that, notwithstanding Franklin's prowess, George Washington could have out-jumped him; Alexander Hamilton have out-sprinted him, and the gallant Lafayette out-fenced him. In the pentathlon and decathlon, however, where the all-round qualifications of strength, skill and stamina are requisite, Franklin would have excelled, and probably would have proved to the alumni of Pennsylvania, Harvard, Yale, and William and Mary, from the last three of which he held the honorary degree of Master of Arts, that he not only preached but practiced the strengthening and rendering active of one's body by frequent exercises in "running, leaping, wrestling, swimming, etc."

It is to be assumed that Franklin would never have advocated nor stood for the so-called and now somewhat ancient English amateur rule of "gentlemen only" nor for the present day continental workingman's compensation for his "broken time," or salary lost by reason of time taken from his job for participation in sports competition. Franklin was a great commoner, and believed and practiced, as we do today in our amateur sport, that it matters not if one be rich as Crœsus or poor as Job's turkey, the mental genius or toiler with one's hands; that all could and should compete together on the same ground of quality of performance; and that the loss of time, either from one's own immediate advancement where one is on his own, or of wages foregone where one is employed by another, is but added zest, and that anything worth while is worth making sacrifices therefor.

All honor to Franklin for the great man he was—but above all for his having found and preached and practiced the art of weaving into the very warp and woof of his life the joys and benefits of physical exercises, competition and attainment.

# Franklin, the Right Worshipful Grand Master

*Grand Lodge of Pennsylvania*
*Free and Accepted Masons*

By J. E. Burnett Buckenham, M.D.
*As Librarian and Curator*

With the promise of financial aid in setting up a printing office in Philadelphia, Franklin was induced by Sir William Keith, Governor of the Province of Pennsylvania, to go to England and obtain the necessary equipment. He arrived in London on December 24, 1724, and on finding the Governor's promises were worthless, and that he was again without funds in a strange city, applied to Palmer, the printer with whom he immediately obtained work. During a portion of the time he was employed here, he assisted in the composition of the second edition of Wollaston's "Religion of Nature Delineated," published in 1726, a volume sought by collectors of Frankliniana on account of this association.

The Ancient and Honorable Society of Freemasons had been reorganized in 1723, when a Grand Lodge of England was established in London and a new interest created in the Society. It drew to its ranks men who had the best standing socially and attracted a great deal of attention.

Franklin, who as a journeyman printer, had no social status, but was not lacking in hopes and ambitions, and the new Society created a profound impression upon him,

and one which later influenced the course of his life. He was quick to make use of a good idea or a suggestion, and on his return to Philadelphia on July 23, 1727, he instituted an association of young men founded on lines similar to the Society of Freemasons, lacking however the high social status of its membership, but identical in its outstanding feature of secrecy. This organization was known as The Leather Apron Club, a name no doubt derived from the idea suggested by the custom of the masons in wearing aprons. The meetings were secret, and in many ways it resembled a masonic organization. The main purposes of the club, however, were "finding out" or "intelligence seeking" on public events of the day. It was almost wholly if not solely to keep Franklin informed as to present and future events in the city of his adoption. Although we know very little of the activities of this club, we gain an insight into its workings from a letter of James Logan to Penn, in which he intimates that it partook of a political nature. Logan refers to the members as tools of Sir William Keith's "baseness and falsehood," and informs him that "they are to send thee a petition calling themselves the Leather Apron Men, and they solicit favorable sentiments towards their master Sir William Keith, who has raised deep contentions here." The Society continued its activities under the original name until 1731, when it was changed to the Junto, and it became purely a literary Club.

The reason for this was no doubt the fact that the Society of Freemasons had been instituted in Philadelphia, Franklin had become one of its members, and his purposes were now better served in the new Society where

he was in close touch with all important events and had been admitted to some degree of social standing. The old Leather Apron Club of Franklin had an existence of four years when its name and purposes passed into history. It is not to be confounded with the organization founded a few years later under other auspices, whose membership was exclusively of tradesmen who met regularly at the tavern, and whose purposes were chiefly to discuss measures before election, and the like, and to counteract the aristocracy of the gentlemen.

The Ancient and Honorable Society of Freemasons was introduced into Philadelphia, where several lodges were set up as early as December 8, 1730, following the authority granted by the Duke of Norfolk, Grand Master of the Grand Lodge of England in a deputation granted June 5, 1730, to Daniel Coxe, Esq., creating him Provincial Grand Master of the Provinces of New York, New Jersey and Pennsylvania, and giving him a power coequal to that of the Grand Master of England.

We first learn of these Lodges of Masons through the columns of the "Pennsylvania Gazette," and although we have none of the records of the constitution of these "Lodges," it is reasonable to believe that a Grand Lodge and one Subordinate Lodge were constituted. We have knowledge of the meetings of the Grand Lodge from the newspapers and there has been rescued from the vicissitudes of time and the hand of destruction the account book of St. John's Lodge, in existence in 1730, and for twelve years thereafter. As its roster contains the names of all the men of social standing in the city at that time who would have been interested in Freemasonry it is

equally reasonable to assume that there was no other Subordinate Lodge; at least we have no inkling of another.

Franklin was initiated into St. John's Lodge in Philadelphia early in the year 1731, the February meeting being regarded as the time of that important event, although he was not selected Warden or Master, he became Secretary in 1735 and held that office until 1738.

His interest in the affairs of the Lodge was recognized when he was appointed a member of the Committee to draft a set of By-Laws for the Lodge, in 1732. The Account Book known as "Liber B" contains a portion of the records in the handwriting of Franklin.

The Grand Lodge met on St. John the Baptist's Day, June 24, 1732, agreeable to the provisions of the Coxe deputation, and we learn that William Allen, Esquire, was chosen Grand Master. He appointed his cousin Humphrey Murray to be his Deputy Grand Master, and Thomas Boude and Benjamin Franklin were chosen respectively Senior and Junior Wardens. At the next election, one year later, Franklin was not elected to office, but at the meeting held on St. John's Day, June 24, 1734, he was chosen Grand Master, and was pleased to appoint John Crap to be his Deputy Grand Master and James Hamilton, Esquire and Thomas Hopkinson, Gentleman, respectively Senior and Junior Grand Wardens. Franklin was succeeded as Grand Master by Lieutenant Governor of the Province, James Hamilton, in 1735.

Franklin does not again loom up in the affairs of Grand Lodge, after his Grand Mastership, until the year 1738, when an unfortunate incident occurred which brought the

Society of Freemasons before the public eye in an unfavorable light. A young man lost his life as a result of submitting to pranks played upon him by a company of ruffians under the guise of initiation into the Society of Freemasons.

This incident afforded Franklin's old business rival, William Bradford, publisher of the "American Weekly Mercury," an opportunity to criticise Franklin's connection with the Freemasons, and for several issues each paper printed charges and counter charges.

The news ultimately became known to Franklin's father and mother, and in a letter to Franklin his father intimated that his mother was concerned over his connection with the new society. This brought from Franklin the following reply in his next letter to his father, dated Philadelphia, April 13, 1738:

> "As to the freemasons, I know no way of giving my mother a better account of them than she seems to have at present, since it is not allowed that women should be admitted into that secret society. She has, I must confess, on that account some reason to be displeased with it; but for any thing else, I must entreat her to suspend her judgment till she is better informed, unless she will believe me, when I assure her that they are in general a very harmless sort of people, and have no principles or practices that are inconsistent with religion and good manners."

This paragraph, together with the two letters written by Franklin in 1734 to Henry Price, Esq., of Boston, Provincial Grand Master for New England, constitute the only letters on masonry written by Franklin that are known to us.

At the time he was Grand Master a supply of Constitution Books was unobtainable from abroad, the first edition, that of 1723, having been exhausted for several years. Franklin now saw an opportunity to reprint the book on his own press. He accordingly began the work in the early part of the year 1734, as the "Pennsylvania Gazette" for May 9 to May 16 calls attention to the book as follows:

"Just Published.

The CONSTITUTIONS of the FREEMASONS: Containing the History, Charges, Regulations, etc., of that most ancient and Right Worshipful Fraternity, London printed. Reprinted by B. Franklin, in the year of Masonry 5734. Price Stitch'd 2s 6. bound 4s."

Although advertised in May, it was not until August that the books were ready for delivery, at which time he sent seventy copies to Boston, a number to Charleston, South Carolina, and later in the same year another consignment to Boston.

It was not until three years later that the second edition of the Anderson's Constitutions was printed in London.

The Franklin imprint of the Constitutions is one of the rare items from the Franklin Press and few copies are known to be in existence. The latest information places them at eight.

Shortly after the publication of the Constitution Book, Franklin, then Grand Master, wrote two letters to Henry Price, Esquire, Provincial Grand Master of New England, and the Brethren of the Grand Lodge of Boston.

One letter was an official communication from the

Grand Lodge of Pennsylvania, signed by Franklin as Grand Master, in which he appears to seek information as to the extent of the authority exercised by Price by virtue of his deputation as Provincial Grand Master, and intimating that there was need of some authority from home to give due weight to the proceedings and determination of the Grand Lodge at Philadelphia.

The second letter was a personal one, in which Franklin intimates "that some false and rebel Brethren, who are foreigners" were about to set up a district lodge in opposition to the old and true brethren here, "pretending to make masons for a bowl of punch," greatly to the detriment of the craft. In this letter he added the following postscript: "P. S. If more of the Constitutions are wanted among you, please hint it to me."

Whether these letters were written as an excuse for bringing up the subject of the sale of more Constitution Books, or from a real (rather than fancied) danger to the craft from not having a warrant of constitution, the writer does not pretend to say.

During the lull in masonic publicity following the year 1741, we hear little of Franklin's masonic activity, but in 1749 he became conspicuous as Provincial Grand Master of Pennsylvania under the deputation granted to him by Thomas Oxnard, Esq., Provincial Grand Master of all North America, on July 10, 1749. This high position was not held by him for any great length of time, for on March 13, 1750, William Allen was granted a deputation as Provincial Grand Master of Pennsylvania by Lord Byron, then Grand Master of England. Franklin thus superseded was appointed by Allen as his Deputy Grand

Master, which position he held until the Grand Lodge of Modern Masons ceased to exist.

The most important event during this epoch of Franklin's career was the building of the first Masonic Hall erected on the western continent, which was dedicated on St. John's Day, June 24, 1755, and the Reverend William Smith, Grand Chaplain and later Grand Secretary of the Ancients delivered a masonic sermon as a part of the program.

Franklin unwittingly became the historian of the first Grand Lodge in Philadelphia through the medium of his newspaper, the "Pennsylvania Gazette."

The pages of the "Gazette" are our only source of information regarding the meetings of the Grand Lodge covering a period of ten years, chronicling the changes in the officers as well as giving the location of the places of meeting.

The columns of the "Gazette," under the eye of Franklin, assume the rôle of an official record or history of the Grand Lodge in the absence of the Lodge record books. At first, notices of masonic events which had occurred in London constituted the masonic items. Then as Freemasonry was introduced into Philadelphia, and Franklin's ambitions and desires to gain admittance into the secret circle of the Brethren of the Ancient and Honorable Fraternity were keen and alert, he began throwing stones to attract their attention and announce his presence, and the article so designed, which appeared in the "Gazette" for December 8, 1730, definitely establishes the time when Masonic Lodges had been erected within the Province.

Having thus used the columns of the "Gazette" to accomplish his own personal ambitions, he next turned it over to the use and benefit of his masonic Brethren deriving conjointly with them whatever benefits might come of it. In later years, when he no longer supervised its contents, it ceased to be a source of masonic news.

As time went on, Franklin's political activities increased to such an extent that he found it necessary to go to England on a mission for the Assembly and from 1757 to 1762 he spent the time abroad on public business. There is nothing to show any masonic activity out of the ordinary during this time, and the only recorded events are those shown upon the records of the Grand Lodge of England, which met at the Crown and Anchor Tavern in the Strand, November 17, 1760, when—Franklin, Esq., Provincial Grand Master of Philadelphia and—Franklin, Esq., Provincial Grand Secretary of Philadelphia, referring to Franklin and his son William were recorded as present. His masonic visits were not common, and besides the above, he is recorded as having visited the Grand Lodge of Massachusetts on October 11, 1754, apparently the only record of his visitation to a Lodge in this country.

As political affairs approached a climax in 1776, culminating in the Declaration of Independence, Franklin was appointed a Commissioner of the Continental Congress, and in October of that year he again started for Europe, arriving in Paris in December, and for the next nine years his career was laid in France in the field of diplomacy.

The fame of Franklin as a diplomat, scientist and phi-

losopher attracted to him the leading French savants of the day.

The Loge de Neuf Sœurs was constituted in Paris the 11th of the 1st month, 1776, and became famous for the quality of the membership. This included Dr. Guillotin, famed as the inventor of the instrument bearing his name which played so important a part in rendering the act of beheading easier and more certain, during the French Revolution; Jean Antoine Houdon, the sculptor of Washington as well as of Franklin; Arouet de Voltaire, philosopher; Prince Camille de Rohan, and a galaxy of the most distinguished Frenchmen in the highest walks of life.

To the list of brilliant Masons the name of Franklin was added in the latter part of 1777 or early in 1778, and he enjoyed the honor of presiding over that body as Venerable Master during the year 1782. In commemoration of his mastership a medal was struck in silver, the work of Bernier, showing the bust of Franklin turned to the left and the inscription "Benj. Franklin Minist. Plent. Des Etats Unis de L'Amerig. Sept. MDCCLXXXIII." The reverse shows the Temple of the Muses with nine female figures and the inscription "De Leurs Travaux naitra Leur Gloire de neuf Sœurs." Fine specimens of this medal are rare.

During his connection with the Lodge of the Nine Sisters, Franklin assisted the Count de Gebelin in the initiation of Voltaire, whose membership was of short duration, Franklin soon thereafter officiating at a Lodge of Sorrow held in his memory.

He was further honored by membership in the order

of St. John of Jerusalem some time in the year 1782, and in 1785 succeeded the Prince Galitzen as Venerable d'honneur (Eminent Commander). A further honor came to him in 1785, when he was elected to honorary membership in the Loge de Bon Amis at Rouen, and in accepting this he looked forward to meeting the Brethren in the Lodge at Rouen.

He returned to Philadelphia on September 14, 1785, and found that great changes had been wrought during the nine years of his absence from home. The old régime was rapidly passing away and the new spirit of the independent States was everywhere manifest. The aristocracy had suffered a defeat and the middle and lower classes were making their presence felt. In masonry the same effects had been produced. The old Grand Lodge of Moderns, of which William Allen had been Grand Master since 1750, had about ceased to exist after the death of Allen in 1780, and it is probable that Franklin represented the last member of that Grand Lodge. The Grand Lodge of the Ancients, which contained so many of the patriots of the American Army, had supplanted the old moderns and increased in strength by the acquisition of many members of the Moderns to its ranks and was in a very flourishing condition. Franklin retained his interest in his French Masonic Association, however, and was pleased to learn later that the Lodge of the Nine Sisters had proposed a prize for an essay on him.

Franklin passed to the Grand Lodge above on April 17, 1790, and his funeral notice, which appeared in the "Pennsylvania Gazette," No. 3126, April 28, 1790, makes no mention of masonic relations.

Two hundred years after his birth, the Grand Lodge of Pennsylvania observed the anniversary by a fitting Memorial Service, which was followed by a pilgrimage to his last resting place in Christ Church Burying Ground at Fifth and Arch Streets, where the veteran Grand Master, whose masonic career extended over sixty years, had been laid to rest.

# Franklin's Outstanding Achievements

*Paper Makers' Advertising Club*

By Brad Stephens
*Editor of "Direct Advertising"*

"Strange that Ulysses does a thousand things so well."—*Iliad.*

*I*

Franklin discovered that lightning is electricity. The world believed up to his time that lightning was caused by poisonous gases exploding in the air. Franklin proved, first by observation and logic, and second by actual test with his kite, that lightning and electricity are identical.

*II*

Franklin invented the lightning rod which Dr. Charles P. Steinmetz of the General Electric Company said is still the best and most reliable protection we have against lightning.

*III*

Franklin was the first to discover that a current of electricity has a magnetic effect, *i.e.*, that it can magnetize a piece of steel. He found that a wire carrying a current of electricity and wound around a piece of iron, makes the iron a magnet. This is the fundamental principle on which the telegraph, the telephone, and the electric motor are based.—*Professor William Duane, Harvard University.*

*IV*

FRANKLIN gave the world the best theory of electricity. After more than 150 years of further investigation and controversy, modern science has finally adopted his early conclusions. These were that electricity consists of very minute particles, so small that they can pass between the atoms of ordinary matter. He believed that these minute particles of electricity, or atoms of electricity, repel each other and are attracted by the atoms of ordinary matter. His idea was that the phenomena of nature are due to the actions and reactions of atoms of electricity with atoms of ordinary matter. This is precisely the view held today by men of science. Within the last thirty or forty years scientific men have been able to isolate and study in detail these atoms of electricity, which are now called electrons. It is by means of these electrons that we send wireless telegraph and telephone messages, and are able to broadcast concerts and speeches so satisfactorily. —*Professor William Duane, Harvard University.*

*V*

HE was the first man to discharge an explosive, located at a distance, by an electric current sent over a wire.

*VI*

HE invented the Franklin stove, the first successful wood-burning stove used in this country.

*VII*

HE invented the invaluable contrivance by which a fire consumes its own smoke, and made the first smoke-consuming stove or furnace.

*Bust by Robert I. Aitken*

HONORING FRANKLIN AT THE HALL OF FAME

*Representing the Boy Scouts and the "Benjamin Franklins," Benjamin Franklin Farber, Jr., is shown paying tribute to "Poor Richard's" memory at New York University. Each member of the "Benjamin Franklins" is named after Benjamin Franklin. Benjamin Franklin Affleck, of Chicago, is President.*

*VIII*

He delivered mankind from the nuisance, once universal, of smoky chimneys. His pamphlet, "Cause and Cure of Smoky Chimneys," revealed the correct principles of chimney construction and rid the world of smoky chimneys and fireplaces.

*IX*

He helped to establish the first chartered fire insurance company in America.

*X*

Whoever did more for a city than Franklin did for Philadelphia? He caused the city to be paved; he invented a better type of street lamp for lighting the city; and he organized the first street cleaning. More than this, he reorganized the antiquated city watch and caused the city to be efficiently policed, and he established the first fire engine company to protect the city from fire. More than this, he established there the first academy, the first library, and the first hospital.

*XI*

He invented a copying press for taking copies of letters or other writing.

*XII*

He invented double spectacles—near and farsight glasses—making a pair for his own use.

*XIII*

He is credited with the invention of a laundry mangle.

In his "Diary" Washington records seeing a demonstration of this machine.

*XIV*

He invented the Harmonica, or Armonica as he called it, which was a musical instrument consisting of a series of graduated glass bowls, pierced by a spindle, and revolved by a foot treadle. The music was produced by holding one's fingers against the moistened glass.

*XV*

Franklin was one of the first American song-writers. He wrote among other songs, a "Sailor Song," "The Mother Country," "My Plain Country Joan," and "Fair Venus Calls," which have been published by the National Bureau for the Advancement of Music. He was a leader in the musical world of his time, wrote on musical harmony, and played on several musical instruments, including the harp, the guitar, the violin, and the Harmonica or glassychord which he invented.

*XVI*

Among Franklin's many inventions should be included a three-wheel clock, a library chair that could be converted into a step-ladder, an artificial arm for taking books down from high shelves in a library, a one-arm chair that could be used like a desk or table for writing, the pulse glass, and an electric jack for turning a roast of meat over the fire. It was his fixed policy to give his inventions to the world, and not to secure patents on them, or to make any profit out of them.

*XVII*

ALTHOUGH not the discoverer, he was the first to demonstrate the production of cold by evaporation, a fact up to that time unknown to science.

*XVIII*

WHEN there were no bathtubs in American homes, and the general custom was to bathe but seldom, Franklin was an advocate of frequent bathing, and took a hot bath twice a week. Franklin also advocated and practiced air-bathing.

*XIX*

FRANKLIN was the originator of the modern science of the art of ventilation. He was the first to discover the poisonous quality which repeated respirations impart to the air in a room. He was the first to call attention to the folly of excluding fresh air from hospitals and sick rooms. When all the world slept with bedroom windows tightly closed, Franklin was the only effective preacher of the gospel of pure air and ventilation; and John Adams maintained that Franklin was a victim of his own foolish theories about air bathing.

*XX*

FRANKLIN made tests of various colored cloths on snow which showed that black and dark colors attract the heat of the sun and that white does not attract the heat. He made recommendations regarding white clothes for the tropics and white cloth helmets for the troops in India which were adopted many years later by the British.

*XXI*

He pointed out the advantage, later adopted universally, of building ships with water-tight compartments, taking the hint from the Chinese.

*XXII*

He was the first to discover that the temperature of the Gulf Stream is higher than that of the surrounding water, and the first to have the Gulf Stream charted.

*XXIII*

He was the first to demonstrate that oil on the water will still the waves.

*XXIV*

He was the first to discover that northeast storms come out of the southwest, in other words, that storms travel in an opposite direction to the winds.

*XXV*

His investigations concerning the weather resulted in the establishment of our United States Weather Bureau of which he is today acknowledged to be the father.

*XXVI*

Franklin was perhaps the best swimmer in the American Colonies, taught swimming, and his swimming feats when he went to England were the talk of that nation.

*XXVII*

With Lord Despencer, Franklin revised the Prayer Book of the Church of England. This was not adopted in England but was later adopted in part in America. Frank-

lin's purpose was, as Parton says: "To extinguish theology, which he thought divided and distracted mankind to no purpose, and to restore religion, which he believed tended to exalt, refine, unite, assure, and calm the anxious sons of men."

*XXVIII*

Franklin conceived and organized the Junto, the forerunner of all Rotary, Kiwanis, Lions and Civitan clubs of today. The Junto developed into the American Philosophical Society, America's first organization of scientists, in which he took great interest and pride, and of which he is justly acknowledged to be the founder.

*XXIX*

Franklin conceived the idea and established in Philadelphia the first successful circulating library, the mother of all our free circulating libraries of today.

*XXX*

Franklin founded the University of Pennsylvania.

*XXXI*

Franklin originated the elective system of college studies and also the so-called "group" system, adopted years later by many of America's leading universities. He was the first writer on education to recommend the teaching of modern languages, such as French and German, in preference to the exclusive study of Latin and Greek. Franklin was the first American educator to appreciate the importance of advanced teaching of history, political economy, and the science of government, also

of technical training in agriculture and in the arts and sciences. He was likewise the first to prescribe athletics as an adjunct of college education.

*XXXII*

FRANKLIN, and not Thomas Jefferson, should be credited with having started the study of vertebrate paleontology in America, for he wrote a letter to George Croghan discussing the so-called elephant's tusks and grinders that had been found near the Ohio River. This was more than thirty years before Jefferson read a paper on the same subject before the American Philosophical Society. Smyth says that the modern character of Franklin's views is surprising. Professor William B. Scott, of Princeton University, says that "Franklin's opinions are nearer to our present beliefs than were Jefferson's." It was fifty-eight years later that Cuvier gave the name of mastodon to the animal whose bones had attracted Franklin's interest and study.

*XXXIII*

FRANKLIN introduced the following useful plants or grains into America from Europe: Scotch kale, the kohlrabi, Chinese rhubarb and Swiss barley. He promoted silk culture in Pennsylvania. He introduced the yellow willow into America for basket making. He taught the farmers of Pennsylvania to plaster their land. He introduced broom corn into Pennsylvania from Virginia. He introduced fowl meadow grass into England from America, and the "Newtown Pippin" apple. He also introduced Newtown Pippin apples from grafts into France,

together with various American trees, nut-bearing trees, and shrubs. He was probably the first American to direct attention in a published writing to the value of education in agricultural science; and probably also the first to suggest the insurance of crops against storms, plant diseases, and insect pests.

*XXXIV*

FRANKLIN was the first American economist. He was also the first president of the Society for Political Inquiries of Philadelphia, the first society in the United States interested in promoting the study of political economy.

*XXXV*

FRANKLIN started the first thrift campaign, and that campaign is still going on. His maxims of "Poor Richard" did more to encourage thrift and industry in the Colonies than any other one thing and they were circulated all over the world. Sargent says that they have been more often translated and printed than any other work of an American author. Y. M. C. A.'s "National Thrift Week" starts annually on Franklin's Birthday, January 17.

*XXXVI*

FRANKLIN was the first to propose daylight saving.

*XXXVII*

FRANKLIN devised a reformed alphabet which was based on simplified or phonetic spelling.

*XXXVIII*

FRANKLIN devised the first scheme for uniting the Colonies, more than twenty years before the Revolution, and

his plan of confederation was finally adopted in all its essential features and binds our Union together today. If this plan had been carried out when Franklin proposed it, he believed it would have prevented the Revolutionary War, and would have secured our independence without a single battle.

*XXXIX*

FRANKLIN organized our postal service and was our first Postmaster General.

*XL*

MORE than any other man, Franklin was instrumental in securing the repeal of the Stamp Act.

*XLI*

THOMAS PAINE who wrote the propaganda that inflamed the American Colonies, and that kept the Revolution alive during its darkest hours, was induced to come to America through the advice and encouragement of Benjamin Franklin.

*XLII*

IF Franklin did not originally suggest the Continental Congress, he was one of the very first to approve it. Long before the majority in the Continental Congress could see the wisdom of his purpose or were even willing to consider the idea, he prepared the first plan of confederation of the Colonies to be presented to that body, and suggested a name, "The United Colonies of North America."

*XLIII*

FRANKLIN helped Thomas Jefferson to write the Declaration of Independence.

*XLIV*

FRANKLIN was our greatest diplomat and secured for us the aid of France in the Revolution and millions in money without which our independence at that time could not have been established.

*XLV*

FRANKLIN edited the best newspaper and the most successful newspaper in all the Colonies. He was the first to attempt to illustrate the news in an American newspaper, and also the first to publish questions and answers in a newspaper. He is said to have drawn the first newspaper cartoon, the picture of a snake cut into sections to represent the Colonies before the Revolution.

*XLVI*

HE was instrumental in establishing eighteen paper mills in the American Colonies.

*XLVII*

"FRANKLIN," says Parton, "was the first to turn to great account the engine of advertising, now an indispensable element in modern business."

*XLVIII*

FRANKLIN established in 1732 the "Philadelphia Zeitung," the first American newspaper to be printed in a foreign language.

*XLIX*

FRANKLIN made a comfortable fortune in the printing business in twenty years. He retired from active business at forty-two years of age so as to be able to devote the

remainder of his life to scientific study and "to doing good."

*L*

In the French and Indian War, after the defeat of Braddock, Franklin was called upon to help save the Province of Pennsylvania from the attacks of Indians, who were scalping entire families within eighty miles of Philadelphia. He organized and commanded a regiment of 560 men to defend the northwestern frontier. He marched in winter up the Lehigh Valley to Gnadenhutten, where an entire settlement had been destroyed, and built three forts in that vicinity. At the opening of the Revolutionary War, before going to France, he planned the defenses of the Delaware, built forts and batteries, and the famous chevaux-de-frise, which delayed the British fleet two months in its advance up the river.

*LI*

Of all the patriots, Franklin was the only one to sign all five of the great state papers that achieved our independence—the Declaration of Independence, the Treaty of Amity and Commerce with France, the Treaty of Alliance with France, the Treaty of Peace with England, and the Constitution of the United States.

*LII*

Smyth says that Franklin "is easily first among the giant race of pamphleteers and essayists, most of whom went before, but a few of whom came immediately after, the war for independence."

*LIII*

FRANKLIN was a master propagandist—America's first. He constantly issued pamphlets, or wrote newspaper articles, to promote the interests of his city, of his country, or the good of mankind. His methods were always the same in promoting a cause: To develop informed public opinion on the question he first wrote something for publication that would attract public attention. In Philadelphia, he wrote and published an anoymous pamphlet, "A Modest Enquiry into the Nature and Necessity of a Paper Currency" (1729), which forced a new issue of paper money (which he printed). Another—"Plain Truth" (1747)—pointed out the helplessness of the Pennsylvania Province against attack by French and Spanish privateers, and led to the organzation of the first militia. With newspaper articles, broadsides, or pamphlets, he was able to establish the first fire engine company in Philadelphia, the first street cleaning, and the first paving. With a pamphlet (1749) he helped to start the Philadelphia Academy, later the University of Pennsylvania; and with another (1751) he expedited the founding of the first hospital in America—the Pennsylvania Hospital. In England, Franklin was a propagandist for all of the American Colonies. Through his articles and letters in the English press, also by pamphlets, he constantly promoted the interests of America. The causes of American discontent with British rule, advice to people thinking of settling in America, and many similar topics, were the subject of his pen. Everybody in England soon came to look to Franklin to speak for America. "Observations Concerning the Increase of Mankind, Peo-

pling of Countries, &c.," (1755) explained that the growth of America did not impoverish England. "The Interest of Great Britain Considered, with regard to her colonies, and the Acquisitions of Canada and Guadaloupe" (1760) was written in collaberation with another man. Public opinion was thereby so influenced that Canada was retained as a British Province. Franklin is also said to have suggested, in 1758, the sending of Wolfe to Canada. "Cool Thoughts on the Present Situation of our Public Affairs" (1764) was an argument against the proprietary government of the descendants of William Penn in Pennsylvania. "Rules for Reducing a Great Empire to a Small One" (1773) was a political satire; his "Edict by the King of Prussia" (1773) was a hoax. At his residence in Passy, France, Franklin set up a private printing plant, issuing many pieces both to aid his country and to amuse his friends. He used printing to help float "Liberty Loans" for the Colonies. One effective broadside was the fictitious copy of a Boston newspaper—a "Supplement to The Boston Independent Chronicle" (1782)—which contained an account of a large quantity of American scalps, which had been captured from Indians in British pay. Thus Franklin brought home to Europeans the atrocities of British warfare as perpetrated by England's allies. In sending a copy to Dumas he said: "The FORM may perhaps not be genuine, but the *substance* is truth."

*LIV*

FRANKLIN was the originator of the idea of a League of Nations, according to a statement made by Rear Admiral

Thomas P. Magruder at the 1927 Franklin's Birthday luncheon of the Poor Richard Club of Philadelphia. He said that Franklin suggested "a united party of virtue, an international organization such as the present League of Nations is supposed to be, and which would consider world matters from the viewpoint of all nations." Burr Price in his book, "The World Talks It Over," writes: "Franklin, likewise, was the first advocate in the United States of a policy now to the forefront in the world —a policy which is doing more than anything else to strengthen the foundations of the League of Nations— and that is the legal condemnation and punishment of a nation which commits aggressive warfare."

*LV*

FRANKLIN's last great work for his country was in the Constitutional Convention which met in Philadelphia in May, 1787. Although now eighty-one years of age and part of the time so weak in his legs that he had to be carried to and from the Convention in a sedan chair, he attended regularly, five hours a day for more than four months. At the suggestion of Washington, the delegates greeted him standing. Washington in the chair and Franklin on the floor worked together. They carried the Convention through in spite of obstacles and differences of opinion that, but for them, would have proved fatal to the establishment of the Constitution at this time. With a few words or a humorous story Franklin would demolish a long opposing speech of a delegate, or ease the situation over a critical period. Several times, it is said, the delegates broke up to return home, but Franklin got

them together again and persuaded them to continue. At one time when it seemed that the Convention must dissolve without accomplishing anything, Franklin offered his famous resolution for prayers, saying that in the beginning of the contest with Britain the Continental Congress had offered daily prayers "in this room" for Divine protection, and that these prayers were heard and graciously answered.

"I have lived, sir, a long time," he continued, "and the longer I live the more convincing proofs I see of this truth: *That God governs in the affairs of men.*"

The resolution was not adopted, but prayers are now offered in the Senate and the House of Representatives, in all our state legislatures, and in most legislative bodies throughout the world.

*LVI*

It was Franklin's compromise idea regarding the Senate and the House of Representatives that saved the Constitution. The delegates to the Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia were irreconcilably divided over the question of how the states should be represented in the Congress. The smaller states wanted to be represented as states on an equal voting basis with the states of large population. And the larger states were resolved to be represented only by population. Franklin himself was for one national legislative body only, and that body to represent the states according to their population. But when danger threatened the establishment of the Constitution and the United States of America, he gave up his own wishes, and proposed what Parton says was the "happiest

political expedient ever devised," a Senate to represent all the states equally, and a House of Representatives to represent the states according to their population. The appropriation bills were to originate in the House.

*LVII*

FRANKLIN organized the first anti-slavery society and made the first protest to Congress against Negro slavery. His last public act was to write against slavery, twenty-four days before he died, one of his most telling satirical pieces for the "Federal Gazette."

*LVIII*

PARTON says that Franklin was the founder of the Democratic party in American politics, that great party which Parton maintains was always right on every leading issue throughout all the early years of the Republic.

*LIX*

PARTON says that the greatest event in Franklin's life was his deliberate and final choice to dedicate himself to virtue and the public good.

*LX*

FRANKLIN's work in establishing the independence of our country in the very beginning was so important that he was the one who was first called the Father of His Country. That title years later passed to Washington. But Carlyle often said that Franklin was the "Father of all the Yankees."

# The Chronology of Benjamin Franklin

By American Philosophical Society

*Founded 1727 by Benjamin Franklin*

* "Eripuit cœlo fulmen sceptrumque tyrannis."—*Turgot.*

1706

Benjamin Franklin was born in Boston on January 17 (January 6, old style).

1716

Assisted his father in his business of tallow chandler and soap boiler. He had attended school no more than two years.

1718

Was apprenticed as a printer to his brother James.

1721

Began to write anonymous articles for "The New-England Courant."

1722

Became a vegetarian for a time to save money on food to buy books.

* "He snatched the lightning from the skies and the sceptre from tyrants."—Editor.

1723

Became publisher of "The New-England Courant."

Left home on account of differences with his brother James, and finally landed "on a Sunday October morning," at High (Market) Street wharf in Philadelphia with only a Dutch dollar in his pocket and got employment in the printing office of Samuel Keimer.

1724

Went to London to buy printing material and, Governor Keith's assistance failing, worked in Palmer's and Watts' printing offices.

1726

He returned to Philadelphia with a Mr. Denham, who promised him a position in a mercantile venture just being started. In a brief time the death of Denham ended this connection and he again secured employment with Keimer.

1727

Formed among his ingenious acquaintances a club for mutual improvement, called the "Junto," which later grew into the American Philosophical Society.

1728

Formed a partnership in the printing business with Hugh Meredith which continued two years.

Wrote his famous epitaph.

1729

Bought out "The Pennsylvania Gazette," started the

previous year by Keimer, which Franklin conducted until 1765.

1730

Assumed sole management of his printing business.

Appointed Public Printer by the Pennsylvania Assembly.

Married Deborah Read, of Philadelphia.

1731

Established the first circulating library on the North American Continent, The Library Company of Philadelphia—which is still in existence.

1732

Wrote and began the publication of "Poor Richard's Almanack." The average sale for 25 years was 10,000 copies a year.

Established the "Philadelphia Zeitung," the first American newspaper to be printed in a foreign language.

1733

Established a branch printing office in Charleston, S. C.

1734

Elected Grand Master of the Masons in Pennsylvania.

1735

Published the first American translation from the Classics, a version by James Logan, of Cato's "Moral Distiches."

1736

Francis Folger Franklin, a four-year-old son, died of smallpox.

Chosen Clerk of the Pennsylvania Assembly.

Organized the first fire company in Philadelphia—the Union Fire Company.

1737

Appointed Postmaster at Philadelphia—a position he held continuously for sixteen years.

Made a Justice of the Peace.

1741

Established, in partnership with James Parker, a printing office in New York.

Published "The General Magazine and Historical Chronicle."

1742

Invented the Franklin Open Stove.

1743

Issued "A Proposal for Promoting Useful Knowledge among the British Plantations in America."

1744

Published an "Account of the newly-invented Pennsylvanian Fire-places."

Published a reprint of "Pamela," the first novel to be printed in America.

His only daughter, Sarah, was born.

1745

Began his experiments in electricity.

1747

Propounded his theory of electricity, known as the "Franklinian Theory."

France and Spain being at war with Great Britain Philadelphia was in danger of attack by their privateers. He organized the citizens for the defense of Philadelphia and raised money, built and equipped a battery.

1748

Retired from active business (at the age of 42), having accumulated a substantial fortune.

Sold his printing business to his partner, David Hall.

Chosen a member of the Council of Philadelphia.

Propounded his theory of the electrical condition in the Leyden jar.

1749

Appointed by the Governor a Commissioner of the Peace, and reappointed in 1752.

Established the identity of lightning and electricity.

Published his "Proposals relating to the Education of Youth in Pensilvania," which led to the formation of the College (afterwards the University) of Pennsylvania, and he was chosen President of the Board of Trustees.

Appointed Provincial Grand Master of Pennsylvania.

1750

Elected to the Assembly of Pennsylvania and re-elected annually for 14 years.

The Assembly appointed him joint Commissioner with

the Speaker (Mr. Norris) to make a treaty at Carlisle with the Indians.

1751

Promoted the founding of the Pennsylvania Hospital, the first of its kind in America (still in existence). He served as Clerk and subsequently as President of its Board of Managers.

Elected an Alderman.

His "Experiments and Observations on Electricity" was published in London.

1752

Aided in establishing the first chartered company in America for insuring against loss by fire—the Philadelphia Contributionship for the Insurance of Houses from Loss by Fire.

Made his celebrated kite experiments and discharged electricity from the clouds.

His "Experiments and Observations on Electricity" was translated into French and published at Paris.

1753

Recommended that pointed rods be placed on buildings to prevent their being struck by lightning.

The Royal Society awarded him the Copley Gold Medal, and Louis XV directed his thanks to be sent to him for his useful discoveries in electricity.

Harvard and Yale Colleges conferred on him the honorary degree of Master of Arts.

Appointed Deputy Postmaster General and held the appointment for twenty-one years.

1754

His "Plan of Union" was adopted by the Congress at Albany but failed to receive the approval of the Colonial Assemblies and the Lords of Trade.

1755

Sent to confer with Gen. Braddock and, in order to obtain the supplies for Braddock's army, he pledged his own property to upwards of 20,000 pounds in payment, and then "organized the transport and commissariat with an ability and foresight in marked contrast to the military conduct of the ill-fated expedition." He received the thanks of the Assembly for his great services.

Was later appointed a Commissioner for raising and expending money for the defense of the frontier against the French and Indians.

Was chosen Colonel by the regiment of foot raised in Philadelphia in this emergency.

Drafted the Militia Act of Pennsylvania.

His "New Experiments and Observations on Electricity, Made at Philadelphia" was published in London.

1756

Appointed by the Governor Military Commissioner for Northampton County, Pa.

Introduced street paving, cleaning and lighting into Philadelphia.

The Borough of Norfolk made him a Burgess and Freeman.

Elected Fellow of the Royal Society.

Elected a member of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures and Commerce, London.

The College of William and Mary, in Virginia, conferred upon him the honorary degree of Master of Arts.

1757

The Assembly, finding that the Proprietaries persisted in requiring their Governors to withhold their assent from all tax bills which did not exempt their estates from the tax levied, resolved to petition the King against them and sent Franklin to England as their agent to present the petition and to urge their rights. He then suggested a compromise by which the unsurveyed lands of the Proprietaries were to be exempted, but the surveyed lands were to be assessed at the same rate as other property of that description. This was approved and made Franklin's first foreign mission a success.

1758

In the issue of "Poor Richard's Almanack" for this year, the last by him, he brought together the best of the wise-sayings, aphorisms, rhymes, etc., of the preceding twenty-four annual issues "as the harangue of a wise old man to the people attending an auction." It was at once copied into all the newspapers of the Continent, reprinted in Great Britain as a broadside, and two translations of it were printed in France. It has been reprinted again and again under the title of "Father Abraham's Speech," "The Way to Wealth" or "La Science du Bonhomme Richard," and has proved itself one of the most popular of American writings.

A German translation of his "Electrical Experiments" was published at Leipzig.

1759

The University of St. Andrews (Scotland) conferred on him the degree of Doctor of Laws.

Admitted as a "Burges and Gild-brother of Edinburgh." Received the freedom of the city.

Was elected an Honorary Member of the Philosophical Society of Edinburgh.

1760

Wrote his so-called "Canada Pamphlet." In the treaty of 1763 Great Britain secured the cession of Canada from France.

Was elected a member of the Council of the Royal Society, and again in 1766, in 1767 and in 1772.

Was appointed Provincial Grand Master of Philadelphia.

1761

Visited Belgium and Holland.

1762

The University of Oxford conferred upon him the degree of Doctor of Civil Law.

Returned to America and shortly afterwards received the thanks of the Assembly of Pennsylvania.

1763

Spent half the year in a tour through the northern Colonies, inspecting and regulating the post offices in the several provinces, and travelled about 1,600 miles.

The Paxton massacre engaged his attention.

A NEW YORK CITY BIRTHDAY CELEBRATION

*In 1923, an important bicentenary year, over seventy-five wreaths, mostly symbolic, decked this Park Row statue. Sponsors were the New York City Chapter, D. A. R.*

1764

Was elected Speaker of the Assembly and signed the petition to the King to convert Pennsylvania into a Royal Province.

The question of taxing their estates had come up in a new form and finally resulted in Franklin's again being sent to England to petition the Crown for a change of government, and to represent the Province.

1765

While in England, as the agent selected to defend the rights of a single province at the Court of Great Britain, he became the bold defender of the rights of America in general. He exerted his powers in endeavors to prevent the introduction and later the passage of the Stamp Act.

1766

Underwent his memorable examination in the House of Commons relative to the repeal of the American Stamp Act. The light he threw upon Colonial affairs, probably more than all other causes combined, determined Parliament to repeal the bill.

Travelled in Germany and Holland. Was elected a Foreign Member of the Königliche Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften at Göttingen.

1767

Appointed by "Order in Council" one of the Commissioners to settle the boundary between the Provinces of New York and New Jersey.

Travelled on the Continent and was presented at the French Court.

Sarah Franklin was married to Richard Bache. Among their descendants have been many eminent Americans.

1768

The Assembly of Georgia appointed him agent in England for that Colony, and reappointed him annually as long as he remained in Europe.

1769

Elected President of the American Philosophical Society and re-elected annually as long as he lived.

Again visited France and found "our dispute much attended to."

Chosen by the House of Representatives of the Colony of New Jersey as their agent in London.

Benjamin Franklin Bache was born.

1770

The Assembly of Massachusetts appointed him agent in England for that Colony.

1771

Elected corresponding member of the Bataafsch Genootschap der Proefondervindelijke Wijsbegeerte, Rotterdam.

Made a tour through Scotland and Ireland.

Began to write his "Autobiography."

Presented to Harvard "many valuable books."

1772

Elected one of the eight foreign members of the Royal Academy of Sciences of Paris.

Served on a Committee of the Royal Society to report on lightning conductors.

Transmitted the Hutchinson letters to America.

1773

A French translation of his works, edited by Dubourg, in two volumes 4to, was published in Paris.

Sent to Lord Dartmouth the petition of Massachusetts for the removal of Gov. Hutchinson.

1774

Underwent his examination before the Privy Council on the petition of the Massachusetts Assembly for the removal of Gov. Hutchinson, and on the transactions relating to Gov. Hutchinson's letters which had come into his possession.

Dismissed by the British Government from the office of Deputy Postmaster General in North America.

Communicated to the Royal Society his observations on the stilling of waves by means of oil.

Offered, at his own risk, to pay the whole damage of destroying the tea at Boston, provided the Acts made against the Province of Massachusetts Bay were repealed.

Prepared for the information of the British Ministry "Terms that might probably produce a durable union between Great Britain and the Colonies."

Presented to Lord Dartmouth the petition to the King adopted by the first Continental Congress.

Mrs. Benjamin Franklin died.

RETURNED to Philadelphia, arriving on May 5.

The Assembly of Pennsylvania unanimously elected him a delegate to the second Continental Congress, about to assemble at Philadelphia. In this Congress he served on not less than ten important committees.

Appointed by the Congress on the Committee to draft a petition to the King.

Appointed by the Congress on the Committee to draw up "A Declaration by the Representatives of the United Colonies of North America, now met in Congress at Philadelphia, setting forth the causes and necessity of their taking up arms."

Appointed by the Assembly of Pennsylvania a member of the Committee of Safety for the defence of the Province against insurrection and invasion, and by the Committee unanimously elected its Chairman.

Proposed in the Congress "Articles of Confederation and Perpetual Union."

Appointed by the Congress on the Committee to consider and report on the resolution of the House of Commons, commonly called Lord North's plan for conciliation.

Elected unanimously by the Congress Postmaster General of the Colonies.

Appointed by the Congress on the Committee to repair to the camp at Cambridge and confer with Gen. Washington and others touching the most effectual method of continuing, supporting and regulating a Continental army.

Appointed by the Congress on the Committee to corre-

spond "with our friends in Great Britain, Ireland, and other parts of the world."

1776

PLANNED an appeal from the Congress to France for aid and wrote the instructions of Silas Deane, a member of the Congress, who was to convey it.

Appointed by the Congress a Commissioner to Canada to negotiate a union with the Colonies.

Appointed by the Congress on the Committee to draft the Declaration of Independence.

Represented the city of Philadelphia in the Conference of Committees of the Province of Pennsylvania, held pursuant to the resolution of the Congress, "to adopt such government as shall in the opinion of the representatives of the people best conduce to the happiness and safety of their constituents in particular and America in general," which finally renounced all allegiance to Great Britain.

Elected to represent Philadelphia in the Convention to frame a Constitution for the State of Pennsylvania.

Unanimously chosen President of the Convention which framed a Constitution for the State of Pennsylvania.

Signed the Declaration of Independence.

Appointed by the Pennsylvania Convention a Justice of the Peace of the City and County of Philadelphia.

Appointed by the Congress to confer with Lord Howe on the subject of reconciliation.

Unanimously appointed by the Congress one of the

three Commissioners to the Court of France to secure the active aid and co-operation of that country.

He collected all the money he could command, amounting to between 3,000 and 4,000 pounds, and loaned it to the Congress, which demonstration of his confidence encouraged others to lend their money in support of the cause.

In October he started on his mission in the sloop of war "Reprisal," and arrived in France on December 4.

Richard Bache became Postmaster General.

1777

Appointed by the Congress Commissioner to the Court of Spain, but declined on account of age and health.

Elected a member of the Royal Medical Society of Paris.

Elected by the Pennsylvania Assembly a delegate to the Congress.

Obtained from France a gift of 2,000,000 livres.

1778

Negotiated a treaty of amity and commerce and also a treaty of alliance with France.

Declined to consider a peace with Great Britain which included an offensive alliance against France.

An office, a pension for life and a peerage were held out to Franklin as a reward for betraying the American cause, and his refusal of these proposals was one of the most notable productions of his pen.

Appointed by the Congress Minister Plenipotentiary to the Court of France.

Obtained from France a loan of 3,000,000 livres.

1779

Obtained from France a further loan of 1,000,000 livres.

An edition of his "Works," edited by Vaughan, was published in London.

1780

Obtained from France another loan of 4,000,000 livres.

A German translation of his "Works" was published at Dresden.

1781

Elected a Fellow of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, Boston.

Tendered to the Congress his resignation as Minister to France on account of age and health, but the Congress declined to accept it and requested his continuance in their service till the peace.

Appointed by the Congress one of the Commissioners to negotiate a peace with Great Britain.

Elected one of the twenty-four foreign members of the Academy of Science, Letters and Arts of Padua.

Obtained a loan of 5,000,000 florins from Holland and from France a further loan of 4,000,000 livres.

1782

Obtained from France another loan of 6,000,000 livres.

Entered into a treaty with the King of France for the repayment of loans, which in all amounted to 18,000,000 livres.

Presented a "rich donation of Works" to the Public Library at Franklin, Massachusetts.

Elected Venerable (W. M.) of Loge des IX Sœurs, Grand Orient de Paris.

Appointed by the Congress a Commissioner to negotiate a treaty of peace with Great Britain.

Proposed to the British Commissioner to abolish privateering and neutralize non-combatants and their property.

Negotiated a preliminary treaty of peace with Great Britain.

1783

Negotiated an armistice with Great Britain.

Negotiated a contract with the King of France for a further loan of 6,000,000 livres.

Concluded a treaty of amity and commerce with the King of Sweden.

Negotiated the definitive treaty of peace with Great Britain, in which the independence of the United States was recognized.

Witnessed the ascension of a Montgolfier balloon and wrote accounts of these first balloon experiments.

Was elected an Honorary Fellow of the Royal Society of Edinburgh.

An Italian translation of his "Works" was published at Padua.

1784

Appointed by Louis XVI one of the Commissioners to investigate the theories of Mesmer, and their report resulted in the exposure of animal magnetism and flight of Mesmer.

Elected a member of the Royal Academy of History of Madrid.

1785

Elected an Honorary Member of the Manchester (Eng.) Literary and Philosophical Society.

Elected Honorary Associate of the Société Royale de Physique, d'Histoire Naturelle et des Arts d'Orleans.

Elected Venerable d'Honneur of R.·.L.·. de Saint Jean de Jerusalem.

Elected Associate Member of the Académie des Sciences, Belles Lettres et des Arts, of Lyons.

Signed a treaty of amity and commerce with the King of Prussia, in which he embodied his advanced views on neutrality, privateering and the exemption of private property from capture at sea, which he had published in a pamphlet in that same year.

Set out for Havre on his return to America. The infirmity under which he labored rendered the motion of a carriage insupportable, and the Queen's litter, borne by Spanish mules, was graciously placed at his disposal and conveyed him from Passy to Havre.

On his taking farewell leave, the King of France presented to him his miniature surrounded with 408 diamonds.

Landed at Philadelphia.

Was elected a Councillor by the City of Philadelphia, and was unanimously elected President of the Council.

Presented to the American Philosophical Society a lengthy paper "On the Causes and Cure of Smoky Chimneys."

Was chosen President (Governor) of Pennsylvania by a vote of 76 out of 77 votes cast, and was unanimously re-elected in 1786 and 1787. He declined to benefit by the compensation given by the State for his services as its President, and devoted the same to public uses, such as colleges, schools, building of churches, etc.

Established a type foundry with equipment brought from France.

Contributed to the American Philosophical Society a paper "Containing Sundry Maritime Observations," which included the subjects of the best form of rigging to improve the swiftness of vessels, the avoidance of accidents that may occasion loss of ships at sea, and his observations on the course, velocity and temperature of the Gulf Stream, for the benefit of navigation on the Atlantic coast.

The western territory of North Carolina was organized into a State and, in compliment to Franklin, was called the State of Franklin, but after a brief existence it gave up the struggle; a decade later it was again organized as a State and called the State of Tennessee.

1786

Contributed to the American Philosophical Society "A Description of a New Stove for Burning of Pit Coal and Consuming all its Smoke" and a paper on "A Slowly Sensible Hygrometer."

Elected Corresponding Member of the Societa Patriotica diretta all' Avanzamento dell Agricoltura, delle Arti e delle Manifatture di Milano.

Was active in promoting the foundation of a College

known as Franklin College, later joined with Marshall College as Franklin and Marshall College.

1787

Took an active part in establishing "The Society for Political Enquiries," which had for its object mutual improvement in the knowledge of government and the advancement of political science.

As delegate from Pennsylvania to the Convention helped to frame the Constitution of the United States.

Elected Honorary Member of the Medical Society of London.

An edition of his "Philosophical and Miscellaneous Papers" was published in London.

1788

Helped to organize the first society formed for the abolition of slavery and, as its President, later wrote and signed the first remonstrance against slavery addressed to the American Congress.

1789

Elected a Member of the Imperial Academy of Sciences of Saint Petersburg (Russia).

1790

Died in Philadelphia, April 17.

Buried in Christ Church Burying Ground, southeast corner of Fifth and Arch Streets, Philadelphia.

He had "nations for his mourners and the great and good throughout the world as his eulogists."

Congress being then in session, the House of Representatives resolved, "That the members shall wear the customary badge of mourning for one month, as a mark of veneration to the memory of a citizen whose native genius was not more an ornament to human nature than his various exertions of it have been precious to science, to freedom and to his country."

In the French Assembly, upon the announcement of his death, it was decreed "that the National Assembly shall wear mourning during three days for Benjamin Franklin," and formal eulogiums were pronounced before the Assembly and the Municipality of Paris. Mirabeau referred to him as "That sage whom two worlds claim as their own."

"A summary of so versatile a genius is impossible."—The Encyclopædia Britannica.

This Chronology is based in part on a Chronology compiled by the late Dr. I. Minis Hays, for the American Philosophical Society.—EDITOR.

Under Franklin's bust in the Statesmen Division of the Colonnade of the Hall of Fame is inscribed on a bronze tablet the following quotation from Franklin's writings:

"This Constitution can end in despotism, as other forms have done before it, only when the people shall become so corrupted as to need despotic government, being incapable of any other."

THIS book was printed by the Franklin Printing Company, founded in 1728 by Benjamin Franklin.

THE paper was made by Dill & Collins Company, direct successors to the oldest paper mill in America.